The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 9, 1895.

The Week.

THE Treasury receipts do not come up to expectation. From the new sugar duties less than $20,000,000 is likely to be realized during the fiscal year instead of the $40,000,000 which it seemed reasonable to estimate. Nor does the higher tax on whiskey appear to have increased sensibly the internal-revenue receipts. All told, the Government's income up to May 1 has been $260,000,000, as against $245,000,000 last year. Expenditures, meanwhile, have been cut down from $311,000,000 in the corresponding period of the last fiscal year to $305,000,000, but even so a deficit of $45,000,000 appears, which is not likely to be diminished in the two months remaining before the annual accounts are made up. This does not mean that the Treasury is or will be bankrupt. It has now, as the result of borrowing, of course, a net cash balance of $89,000,000, in addition to the gold reserve, at present $91,000,000. Thus it will be easy enough to pay all demands till Congress meets. But unless the outlook greatly changes by that time, it will be necessary to put the Government in funds by new measures of taxation—especially with the income tax already cut in two. Doubtless a supernaturally wise Republican Congress will devise taxes which nobody will have to pay, and which therefore will prove odious to no class of voters. Everybody must rejoice to observe, in the meantime, that almost exactly half of April's income of $24,000,000 was paid out in pensions. We all ought to be glad, that is, that the Grand Army and the claim agents have left us even a half to run the Government with.

Chancellor Harcourt's budget speech shows what responsible government can do in the way of forecast and control of revenue and expenditures. The revenue turns out to be some £500,000 greater than the estimates, and the actual expenditures £84,000 greater than the estimated; the surplus being £776,000 instead of £291,000 as estimated. Such precise results are possible only where a party leader can keep a firm hand on both taxes and appropriations, and is not subject, as he is under our headless system, to having his best-laid plans overriden by a log-rolling combination of the grabbers of both parties. Sir William's account of the generally prosperous condition of the country will be sad reading for President Andrews and the other prophets who were going to bring gold-standard England to her knees in six months. The savings-bank deposits are one of the surest tests of the well-being of the working classes, and when these have mounted from £35,000,000 in 1893 to £45,000,000 in 1894, it is clear that the kneeling process is hardly going to begin yet. As the chancellor intimated, with such proofs of a sound financial condition before her eyes, England will not be such a fool as to take a plunge into bimetallism, with or without ratios or international labels.

The reason why the Nicaraguan trouble could not be arbitrated is plain enough. The thing complained of by Great Britain was an insult to and outrage on one of its own officers. Nations do not arbitrate on insults. They arbitrate about nearly everything else, but do not submit to arbitrators the question how much they ought to get for being kicked or having their noses pulled. They may arbitrate about injuries to individuals by riots, or about territory or boundary lines, or abuse of power by naval and military commanders; but deliberate ill usage of one of their own officers by a foreign government no self-respecting power lets any third person pass upon. The trouble in such cases as the Nicaraguan is, that if such acts on the part of a small semi-barbarous government are allowed to pass, they are pretty sure to be repeated, and bombarding them or using force in such a way as to destroy life or property seems cruel. So that on the whole the seizure of a custom-house seems about the most humane way of settling the matter, if Government property cannot be got hold of in any other way. Most of our discussions of the affair here have been worthy of Bloomingdale or the State asylum. Where a lunatic has the advantage of sane dialecticians is in being released from all attention to facts or precedents.

While blatherskite Republican legislatures in Connecticut and New York are passing resolutions bewailing to high heaven the "open and flagrant violation of the Monroe doctrine," the State Department is having the said doctrine printed in a separate leaflet for distribution to all applicants. We may be sure, however, that the blatherskites will not apply. The last thing in the world they want is to know what the Monroe doctrine really is; and if they could be summoned before a body of trained logicians and asked to point out wherein the Monroe doctrine had been violated, they would refuse if the leaflets were as plenty as blackberries. What they mean by the Monroe doctrine is a general warrant for ignorance and insolence applied to foreign relations—that is to say, they mean it as long as they are out of power and irresponsible. Once in control of the administration, they would knuckle under to England as meekly as ever Blaine or Harrison did, when the pinch came.

There is gratifying evidence of the growth of sound-money ideas in the State of Indiana. It is only five years since both parties were badly infected with the silver delusion, and the Republican State convention welcomed the passage of the Sherman act as "a long yet prudent step towards free coinage." But now the Republican press of the State is fast becoming unanimous in its opposition to free coinage. The Indianapolis *Journal* in a recent issue published brief extracts from nearly twenty newspapers in different parts of the State, not one of which favored the 16-to-1 policy, while many put the arguments against it very forcibly. Indeed, the country press in all parts of the nation is making a far better showing than would have been expected by most people. Alabama, for instance, is a Southern Democratic State whose Senators, Pugh and Morgan, have been giving everybody to understand that their constituents were all crazy on this subject. In point of fact, however, not only are the Montgomery *Advertiser*, the Mobile *Register*, and other such leading journals in the large cities fighting the free-coinage scheme, but a canvass of all the newspapers, large and small, which have declared their position, shows that sixty-nine are against the 16-to-1 policy, and only twenty-eight for it, of which latter eight are Populist organs. The truth is that there is more noise than substance in the silver claims everywhere.

The fate of Mr. James Irving Burns of Yonkers, who introduced in the New York Assembly the bill for the practical repeal of the civil-service law, is one which frequently happens to statesmen who live too exclusively among men of their own way of thinking. Mr. Burns heard all his fellow-statesmen damning the civil-service law and expressing a desire to get it from between them and the offices. He, too, was looking for offices for his followers, and had discovered that he could not get them. So he thought he would please all good Republicans and get what he wanted by bringing in a bill to repeal the offending law. He brought it in, but as soon as it got before the public he discovered that the sentiment which statesmen expressed in private was so different from that which the public entertained, that few of them dared openly to support the bill, although it met the deepest longing of their hearts. Instead of making himself popular, Burns found that almost nobody was willing to stand with him, that even Speaker Fish said his bill must be withdrawn, and accordingly he withdrew it. There is no hope of its passage, therefore, and Burns will lapse back into the obscurity from which he emerged when he presented it. He has received his first lesson in the politician's art of

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"pandering a little to the moral sense of the community."

We understand that the mayor adheres to his determination to leave the selection of the new police magistrates to prominent members of the bar. We trust this determination will not be overborne by the politicians urging him not to "delegate his powers," and to "use his prerogative," and so on; because any mistake about these appointments will be very serious for the city, and they are appointments about which it is easy to make mistakes. There will be a large number of candidates in whom politics and law will be mixed in about equal proportions, and a large number, too, whose character as politicians will stand higher than their character as lawyers, and many whose character as lawyers will be considerably puffed by influential lay friends. Nobody knows so much about the fitness of lawyers for judicial positions as other lawyers, and nobody is more interested in having good judges and magistrates. So that if the mayor will take the advice on these appointments of well-known members of the bar, he will not only confer a great boon on the city in the present case, but establish a most valuable precedent, which will bear fruit hereafter.

The Tammany police justices are naturally very unwilling to go. They have occupied a unique position. Never, we presume, since man established courts of justice, has such a body discharged judicial functions on a salary in a civilized state. There have been such judges before now, but they owed their offices to their ability to "lick" anybody who objected to them, or else have been members of a semi-barbarous community. The oddity of our men lies in the fact that they have held office in one of the foremost countries of the world in both arts and arms, and that some of the leading lawyers of Christendom might have appeared before them. This makes them extremely interesting, and both historians and sociologists ought to take a look at them before they leave the bench and go back to their old roosting-places, with no trace of their judicial honors left except the empty title of "jedge." Tom Grady is, however, the only one who laments aloud, but his lamentations are tinged with joy. He says people are beginning to see the mistake they made last fall, or, as he expresses it, are beginning "to see things in their real perspective." Tom knows bigger words than any Tammany man except Bourke Cockran. What troubles him most, however, is not so much the loss of his place as the charge that he and his fellow-justices "oppressed the poor." He feels this imputation keenly, and thinks it a rather ridiculous one to come from the Chamber of Commerce, which is engaged constantly in combinations to raise prices on the poor. Their last exploit in this line was raising the price of beef. Men who meet to raise the price of beef on the poor ought, Tom thinks, to keep silent about his qualifications as a police justice.

The announcement that Austin E. Ford is to have a fire commissionership cannot be wholly due to the labors of his "Civic Union" in the late canvass. We have no desire to underrate the earnestness and zeal of this organization, but it never numbered more than one hundred members, and one hundred men cannot do much in any canvass, let them be ever so well disposed. Its dissolution immediately or very soon after the election we ourselves ascribe to over-exertion. The members were exhausted and incapable of continuing their efforts in the cause of good government, and retired simply to recruit their strength. This, at all events, is a much more charitable theory than the one propounded by some malicious persons, that the "Civic Union" was simply intended to impose on Mayor Strong, and, having made its "claim" on him, retired from the scene. Nor do we ascribe Ford's fire commissionership wholly to the "Civic Union." We feel sure he has personal merits which he has not yet had an opportunity of displaying. But over and above these he had, as nephew of Pat. Ford of the *Irish World*, and assistant editor of that publication, an experience of explosives which must be useful to a fire commissioner, and which none of his colleagues will have. He filled this editorial office while the *Irish World* was preparing for the destruction of the British monarchy by chemical means, and undoubtedly made himself acquainted with the force, or "energy," as the scientists call it, of the various compounds used against life and property by anarchists and other evil-disposed people. The value of such a man in a department which has to deal with the results of the crimes of such people is easily seen.

We see there has been a split in the "O'Brien Democracy." A considerable portion of it has gone off and founded another "Democracy," which will, of course, have to be "recognized," for a Democracy without recognition would be like a tavern without liquor. The consequences of this split will, in our opinion, be serious and far-reaching, for there can be little question that all the other Democracies, and indeed all the other "organizations" which supported Mayor Strong, will split too. The advantages of splitting are so obvious that the tendency to disintegration which will now set in, will probably go far. City Democracies, like certain low forms of animal life, in fact propagate by splitting. They are, in scientific language, fissiparous. Each part, after the split, enters on a life of its own, fully furnished with the parental organs, and as capable as the parent of office-getting and office-holding. As the next election draws near, this asexual multiplication of the species will undoubtedly become more rapid, and Mayor Strong's successor will probably have twenty times as many "claims" to deal with as Mayor Strong himself. Ten "Civic Unions" is a moderate estimate of what fissiparity will do for that thoughtful society, while the capacity of the larger ones, like the State Democracy, for fissiparous increase in the public interest, is something which no prudent man will try to calculate. We should not be at all surprised to see one hundred and fifty organizations in 1898, carrying the people's candidate into power with an average vote of 50,000 a piece, and held together, as in a vice, by a chosen leader, whose demands for a commissionership or two no mayor will be able to resist. Whence offices are to come for them, all we cannot say.

When the secretary of state of New Jersey, Henry C. Kelsey, admitted on the witness-stand last Thursday that, in plain violation of the law, he had been converting to his own use State funds at the same time that the State Treasury was borrowing money to meet its necessities, it would have been natural to look for an announcement of his resignation of his office along with the publication of this disclosure. Not the least indication, however, is given that resignation has even suggested itself to him, nor does the public across the river seem to look for so fitting a conclusion of the matter. One reason for this is that professional politics in New Jersey, no matter under what name, has been for a long time simply a means of jobbery. Take Kelsey's case, for instance. An editor and a county "lay" judge, he was appointed secretary of state as a political reward by Gov. Randolph as far back as 1870, and has filled the office continuously for the last twenty-five years. When his term expired the first and second times, he was reappointed by Democratic Governors and confirmed by Republican Senates. When next renominated, in 1881, the Senate refused to confirm him, but Gov. Ludlow appointed him to "fill the vacancy," and nominated him again in 1882, when a more subservient Republican Senate confirmed the nomination. He was again confirmed by a Republican Senate when nominated by Gov. Green in 1887, and once more in 1892, when he was the choice of Gov. Abbett. Kelsey, therefore, owes his long tenure quite as much to the favor of Republican Senates as he does to his influence with Democratic Governors. How large a part of the profits he confesses he has made improperly out of his office he has divided with his bi-partisan friends, it would be interesting for him at his next examination to state.

There is a slow-growing but encouraging public demand in New Jersey that the punishment of the persons responsible for the grave peculations which the Senate

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committee is bringing to light shall not end with the mere exposure of their misdeeds. When the committee began its work, there was a disposition to believe that the inquiry would go no "higher" than State-house employees and men of similar position. Now, however, that the evidence has gone directly against the secretary of state and one ex-Governor, people are asking if the present Governor and other ex-Governors do not share more or less in the responsibility for the scandals. One of the requirements of the Constitution is that the Governor "shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed." An aggressively honest Governor, who is not a politician first and a servant of the people afterward, has all the power necessary to execute this command. The Governors of New York who preceded Mr. Tilden in office could have disrupted the canal ring just as he did, had they made up their minds to do so, and the Governors of New Jersey could have put a stop to the long-continued peculation there at almost any period. This was not to be expected of an Abbett, but it was not too much to look for it from a Werts or a Green. Gov. Werts has an immediate opportunity to show his appreciation of the situation. Three of the persons directly implicated by the testimony are members of his staff, namely, Brig.-Gen. Heppenheimer, Col. Leon Abbett, jr., and Col. John T. Van Cleef. Is the last named the only one who is going to resign?

The Columbia *State* strongly advocates a resort to qualified woman suffrage as a means of insuring white supremacy in South Carolina without any possible collision with the Federal Constitution. Moreover, it says this idea meets with marked favor, and will have its supporters in the coming Constitutional Convention. That such an innovation should be the result of emancipation must seem odd enough to those who remember how the ante-bellum South prided itself on its Chinese wall against isms; yet the situation is so desperate that we may well see woman suffrage enacted in South Carolina before it establishes itself in Massachusetts, the original seat of the agitation. We observe also in the *State* an extract from the Manning *Times* intimating that Col. Dargan, the intrepid editor of the Sumter *Freeman*, should either be confined as a lunatic or, if sane, "*requested* to desist" from stirring up strife between whites and blacks. The *State* thinks there is something sinister in the *Times's* italicising, and no doubt we have here a manifestation of that "Regulator" spirit which warned Mr. Hallowell out of Camden. The town of Manning was, we believe, named after the family of Mr. Richard I. Manning, who lately wrote to us that the Camden menace was only a practical joke. Col. Dargan, by the way, is abused because he addresses the blacks; but when he offers, as just now in Charleston, to present himself before a white audience exclusively, the press gives him the cold shoulder.

President Low's magnificent gift of $1,000,000 to Columbia College for a library building makes, we believe, nearly six millions that the college has received in gifts since he succeeded to the presidency. This may fairly be said to "beat the record" among American colleges, if we except the foundation of the Chicago University. It shows, too, what New York can do in the way of the encouragement of learning when once fairly appealed to. We believe it is not over twenty years since Columbia allowed it to be supposed that she stood in need of or received gifts. Since then the tide of local generosity and sympathy has been flowing towards her steadily, and she promises speedily to be one of the richest seats of learning in the world; and with money, we are sure, there will come steady growth in intellectual capacity and achievement.

The Presbyterian seminaries continue this year, as they did last, to refuse, gently but firmly, to walk into the General Assembly's parlor. This movement to compel them to turn over their funds and management to the Assembly was really a part of the conservative programme mapped out in the days of the Briggs controversy; and its flat failure now is but one of many signs that the fury of those days has largely spent itself. The churches are heartily tired of the whole thing, and of the odium it brought upon the denomination, and want it dropped altogether. In fact, as so often happens in theological controversies, the man over whom all the pother was made is disciplined and orthodoxy thereby vindicated, but the heretical opinion goes on eating its way into the clerical world just the same. Plenty of Presbyterian ministers hold the Briggs views and avow them; they are not troubled, unless it be by their own consciences, nor will they be unless they become unduly aggressive and pugnacious. In the modern theological world, so much at ease in Zion, views (the truth is) are becoming of less and less account, and the emphasis is getting to be placed more and more on good manners, humanitarian labors, and pleasant Sunday afternoons.

Contemporaneous despatches from St. Petersburg, Berlin, and Paris leave little doubt that Japan has agreed, on the joint demand of Russia, Germany, and France, to abandon her claim to permanent possession of Port Arthur and adjacent territory. That she will, in consequence, exact an additional money indemnity from China seems certain, and that therein she will have the support of the Powers that have insisted on her giving up her territorial pretensions is highly probable. It is only the form, not the justice, of the Japanese claim that they contest. Russia's object is sufficiently plain. If there is going to be any dismembering of China, she means to preside over the operation. Meanwhile, pending the completion of her trans-Siberian railway, and until she is ready to move to the south herself, she does not care to have a Japanese stronghold at Port Arthur over against her fortified railway terminus and harbor, Vladivostok. It speaks well for the wisdom of the Japanese Government that their great successes against China have not destroyed their ability to see straight. All the talk about Japan's having at a step taken her place among the first-class powers has not blinded her generals and admirals and diplomats to the fact that moderation and humility are still her wisest rôle in dealing with Europe. Thirty years more of consolidation and nourishing her strength may lead her to take a different tone; but at present not the least admirable part of her sudden rise to the world's notice is the restraint and clear-sighted wisdom that have marked her Chinese negotiations, compelled all the while to keep an eye on Russia and France in the background.

An Hawaiian Grand Army is already full tilt after the offices. It appears to be composed of those who took up arms in the late terrible struggle wherein one man was killed and as many as three or four wounded, and it proposes to let no man hold office under the Government who did not either fight or profess a fierce desire to fight in the recent insurrection. It sent an impudent demand to the executive and advisory councils that certain "disloyal" men in the departments be removed and their places given to true patriots. The ministers replied on April 11, abjectly enough, giving detailed reports in regard to all the men complained of. Nearly all of them turned out to be furious patriots, and retained their offices, but the attorney-general found "several laborers in the garbage department" who were suspected of monarchical sentiments, and whom he promptly discharged to make congenial places for the veterans. The latter were justly incensed, however, by the conduct of Chief-Justice Judd, who resented their inquisition and declared that "the Supreme Court has never required this [membership in a military organization] of any of its employees as a condition precedent to their employment." This looks bad for Justice Judd. As the *Hawaiian Gazette* says, his reply "reads very much as though he was somewhat offended at being thus approached, but it is always quite as well to assume a conciliatory rather than an arbitrary attitude." Evidently his long service under a queen has given him perverse ideas about qualifications for office, and it seems idle to look for impartial justice from a court presided over by such a judge. He should be removed at once to make room for a member of the Schuetzen Club.

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SOME MONROE MYTHS.

We doubt very much whether there is any widespread popular interest in the Monroe doctrine, despite all the froth about it in the newspapers and in reform Republican Legislatures that compound for the corruption they are inclined to by damning all attacks on liberty and purity in far-away lands. Every trustworthy test of public sentiment in this country that the Jingoes have elicited since 1873 has shown that the vast majority of the people are peace-loving, that they are wrapped up in the pursuits and arts proper to a great industrial nation, and that they look upon these constantly recurring newspaper foreign wars, first with amusement, then with weariness, finally with disgust. Moreover, it is almost impossible to conduct a rational discussion with those who rage and fume about the Monroe doctrine. Not one of them has advanced a definite policy, in opposition to the policy pursued by the Government, least of all given a reason either for or against the Administration's policy, England's policy, or their own policy, if they have any. They are strong on English trickery, mighty on Gresham's imbecility, but about what they would do themselves, vague in the extreme, though always furious.

Furthermore, the refutation of most of their wild assertions may safely be left to time and the event. A week is usually all that is necessary to cover them with confusion as prophets. Last week they were begging everybody to mark their words that the British would never abandon Corinto. That is not the English way. Look at Egypt if you don't believe us. But the British sailed away on Saturday, and the prophets have nothing left for it except to affirm that this is only a new step in English intrigue and perfidy. This sensation will rapidly become ancient history, like that far-off, forgotten thing, the *Alliança* affair, over which, only seven short weeks ago, Mr. Whitney's blood was boiling at long range and the country was, journalistically, convulsed. Sensible men cannot be blamed for getting tired of chasing down one of these nine-days' wonders after another.

Still, there are some positive allegations about the Monroe doctrine which are brought out afresh at every occurrence of this kind, and of which it is doubtless well to expose the hollowness. Prof. Moore's historical article, published in the *Evening Post* on Saturday, left a whole train of these allegations dead along the track of his calm and convincing exposition of what occasioned the Monroe doctrine in the first place, what it was intended to accomplish, and what the terms in which it was couched meant, as explained by the very men who drew it up. But all that was a good while ago, it is said, and the practice of subsequent Presidents and secretaries has given the Monroe doctrine a different meaning and a new significance. Seward's name, in particular, is one often used in this connection. Didn't he sharply order the French out of Mexico? Why doesn't Gresham send a peremptory message to the British to quit Nicaragua?

Now, Seward's real position in the matter of interference in South American affairs was clearly stated by him in a despatch of June 2, 1866, to our minister in Chili. The state of affairs was very like that between England and Nicaragua. Spain, a monarchical country, was making war upon Chili, one of the sisterhood of American republics. Moreover, our minister to Chili, the not very prudent Kilpatrick, was visibly anxious to interfere and order Spain to the right about. But Seward pointed out the danger, the impossibility, of allowing South American countries to imagine that we could interfere to shield them from the consequences of their own folly. South American statesmen would interpret such an attitude on the part of the United States "in the light of their own interests and wishes." Said the secretary, with an eye to our foreign relations as a whole, "We could claim from foreign states no concession to our own political, moral, or material principles or interests if we should not conform our own proceedings, in the needful intercourse with foreign states, to the just rules of the law of nations." Then he added, as if in prophetic reference to our own Jingoes:

> "Those who think that the United States could enter as an ally into every war in which a friendly republican state on this continent becomes involved, forget that peace is the constant interest and the unwavering policy of the United States. They forget the frequency and variety of wars in which our friends in this hemisphere engage themselves entirely independent of all control or counsel of the United States. We have no armies for the purpose of aggressive war; no ambition for the character of a regulator. Our Constitution is not an imperial one, and does not allow the executive Government to engage in war except upon the well considered and deliberate decree of the Congress of the United States. A federal Government consisting of thirty-six equal States, which are in many respects self-governing, cannot easily be committed by its representatives to foreign wars, either of sympathy or of ambition. If there is any one characteristic of the United States which is more marked than any other, it is that they have from the time of Washington adhered to the principle of non-intervention, and have perseveringly declined to seek or contract entangling alliances, even with the most friendly states."

In the same letter he clearly showed the difference between the case of the French in Mexico and the Spanish in Chili, or, we may add, the English in Nicaragua. The United States were determined not to allow "the republican system which is accepted by the people" in any American state to "be subverted as an end of lawful war by European powers." This says nothing about a monarchical or aristocratic system voluntarily set up by the people themselves. Yet there is an idea abroad that the Monroe doctrine implies that nothing but democratic institutions can be recognized on this continent, however arising or introduced. As Wheaton points out, this is a pure myth. As a matter of fact, the United States were the first to recognize the imperial authority of Dom Pedro in Brazil and of Iturbide in Mexico. There is nothing in the Monroe doctrine, or in common sense, to prevent the people of any American country from setting up any kind of government they please. Nor is there anything in it, as Seward pointed out, to modify or overturn one jot or tittle of that international law by the rules of which the United States must be guided in all their foreign relations, if they are not to be "cut" or called to account by other nations, as surely as a man would be by his acquaintances if he should profess some rules of behavior inconsistent with ordinary good breeding or common morality.

SIX CENTURIES OF BIMETALLISM.

The present bimetallic controversy has given birth to nothing more profound and convincing than a book of some 400 pages entitled 'The History of Currency, 1252 to 1894,' by W. A. Shaw, an English author, who has done for the currencies of the civilized world what Lord Liverpool did for that of England in his classical work, 'On the Coins of the Realm.' Mr. Shaw's work, like that of Lord Liverpool, possesses a permanent historical interest far transcending the present battle of the standards. The efforts of the human race to extricate itself from the coil of the double standard of silver and gold are sketched by Mr. Shaw for a period of more than six centuries. The struggles of Laocoön, or those of the mad Hercules, were not more agonizing. Society was at dreadful strife with itself, and did not know what was the cause of its misery. But it found out at last, and delivered itself from its torment, and now some people propose that it shall voluntarily put on the shirt of Nessus once more. Mr. Shaw rightly says in his preface:

> "The modern theory of bimetallism is almost the only instance of a theory growing not out of practice, resting not on data verified, but on data falsified and censure-marked. No words can be too strong of condemnation for the theorizing of the bimetallist who by sheer imaginings tries to justify theoretically what has failed in five centuries of history, and to expound theoretically what has proved itself incapable of solution save by cutting and casting away."

To enumerate all the changes of ratio between silver and gold in all the countries of Europe during the period covered by Mr. Shaw's researches would be like counting the stars in the Milky Way. For example, in France the ratio "was changed in a single century more than a hundred and fifty times," and these changes were not, as is commonly supposed, mere arbitrary acts of the sovereign to fill the royal treasury. They were due to variations in the market value of the two metals after the legal ratio had been fixed. In almost every instance the initial steps for a change in the legal ratio were taken by the trading community. What took place in France was the common experience of Germany, England, the Netherlands, and Italy. And so they went on

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weltering in ratio changes till the nineteenth century, when they found out what was the matter and applied the remedy. And now they are asked to plunge in again and welter a while longer.

The bimetallist contention that the action of France in fixing the legal ratio of 15½ to 1 kept the market ratio of the two metals steady from 1803 to 1873 has been in a staggering way for some time. Mr. Shaw gives it the *coup de grâce*. "At no point of time," he says, "during the present century has the actual market ratio, dependent on the commercial value of silver, corresponded with the French ratio of 15½, and at no point of time has France been free from the disastrous influence of that want of correspondence between the legal and commercial ratios. The opposite notion, which prevails and finds expression in the ephemeral bimetallic literature of to-day, is simply due to ignorance." In order to put the divergence between legal and market ratio in France in graphic form, he presents a chart showing the variations for each year beginning in 1803. In the first place the market ratio was not 15½ in 1803, and the law of that year did not make it so. The market ratio was 15.41, and it continued at that figure throughout the year. In 1804 a change began. Silver fell or perhaps gold rose (no matter which) so that in 1805 the market ratio was 15.79. Then it began to vibrate. In 1806 it was almost identical with the French legal ratio; it was 15.52. This was near enough for practical purposes, if it had only continued, but the next year it was 15.43 and the next it was 16.08. Between two years (1811 and 1813) the variation was from 15.53 to 16.25. To make a long story short, the market ratio, about the year 1820, became decidedly favorable to the exportation of gold, and remained so till 1853, when it became equally favorable to the exportation of silver, remaining so till 1867, when a fresh and permanent change took place. The French monetary commission of 1867, speaking of these fluctuations, said:

"It is well known by all that this ratio [of 1803], by the simple reason of its being fixed, could not remain current. There was quickly a premium on gold, *and silver remained almost alone in circulation until near 1850.*"

This statement of a fact might be confirmed by a hundred citations from contemporary literature, both French and English. Mr. Robert Giffen, some years ago, presented the quotations of sterling exchange in Paris (which were really quotations of gold) from 1820 to 1853, showing that gold could not have been in general circulation when it commanded such a premium. When these figures were published, the bimetallists with one accord said that the divergencies were not sufficient to carry gold out of circulation. The fact that it did go out of circulation is now proved for the fiftieth time, but whether it will shut the mouths of Mr. Giffen's critics is very doubtful.

As this fallacy appears in 'Coin's Financial School,' it is calmly assumed that the market ratio was steady at 15½ to 1 for seventy years, and that it was so because of the French law of 1803. If it was not steady—if it went wobbling about as Mr. Shaw's chart shows that it did—the whole argument falls to the ground. Yet it is necessary to explain why the market ratio was as steady as it was, and why the great gold discoveries of California and Australia in the fifties did not produce a greater divergence. The answer is easy. Modern commerce took a great start in the fifties. It absorbed the new gold with avidity. Gold was exactly suited to the new state of things because it possessed much value in little bulk and weight. Consequently it was welcomed by commerce, and especially by France, which gladly exchanged its bulky silver for it. So the mystery of the comparative steadiness of the market ratio during the great outpouring of gold in the fifties is explained by natural causes, and without reference to the French bimetallic law.

OUR JURY SYSTEM.

WE were in hopes that something would be done at the late Constitutional Convention to adapt our jury system to the needs of modern society. We know very well that such matters ought as a rule to be left to the Legislature, but we have now had experience enough of the difficulty of securing from such bodies the enactment of any real reform in a shape approved by competent men. For permanent and well-considered changes in the structure and procedure of the government, we have clearly to rely in the main on the constitutional conventions. Still, the evils of our jury system are so glaring, and so promotive of crime, that it is surprising that neither the judiciary nor the bar have before now made any effort to reform it. In this city three weeks have been spent, by a judge and the lawyers, in finding twelve men to try a policeman for taking bribes. After these were found, two had to be excluded for fraudulent concealment of facts, so that the process is not yet over. In any other civilized country the whole affair would have been over in three days—one for preparation, one for trial, and the last for sentence in case of conviction. What is the reason for this astonishing difference?

It is in reality quite simple. In a country in which publicity reigns as it has never reigned anywhere before, in which the newspapers record crimes and offences as they have never been recorded elsewhere, we have a rule that anybody who has heard about a crime, and formed an opinion about it, is presumptively disqualified from trying the criminal. He has, the law says, to approach the case in ignorance about it caused by not reading the newspapers, or in the state of mental decrepitude which prevents one who reads of a murder from forming the opinion that anybody committed it. The acceptable juror has, in short, to be in a state of mind about the whole matter which it is difficult to find except among the grossly ignorant or the feeble-minded. Consequently the process of impanelling a New York jury, in a notorious case, is apt to consist in a search for twelve extremely illiterate or half-witted men—a process which it would be impossible to witness anywhere else outside the comic opera.

The encouragement which criminals get from this system, we need not point out. It increases very greatly the chance of escape which even the best jury trials hold out. The spectacle alone of the impanelling of a jury demoralizes the community and distinctly diminishes popular respect for the administration of justice, so that the escape of the criminals is by no means the whole of the evil it works. The worst of it is that it makes the attempt of the state to punish crime somewhat ridiculous. Clearly, nobody but the criminals and the "jury fixers" are interested in the continuance of the present state of things. The only obstacle such a reform would meet with in the Legislature would come from sheer frivolity or dislike of serious subjects; but this might be got over by patience and perseverance.

The truth is, that our jury law belongs to the age before newspapers, railroads, and telegraphs. It is somewhat like the Supreme Court view that the only incomes are incomes from land, and that men pay capitation taxes with something that is not income. However we may feel about it, we must do the work of the world, including the administration of justice, with people that will read newspapers and form opinions about what they read. There is no other class fit to do the work of the world available. Even the judges read newspapers. The old formula, "My attention has been drawn," is no longer available even for them. Nobody can now pretend that he does not see what is in the newspapers till somebody tells him about it. We have to do the best we can with the modern man, seeing that the ancient or mediæval man no longer exists. The earth, in fact, has to be "run" by the living, and not by the dead. We must take decent men's word for it that they can try a criminal according to the evidence in spite of the previous formation of an opinion. We cannot go on much longer picking out imbeciles, knaves, and ignoramuses to bring our malefactors to justice. The mere waste of time of the judges who preside over these processes is a serious injury to the public. Hundreds of important causes wait for adjudication, not while one criminal is being tried, but while a tribunal is being prepared to try him.

RELICS OF THE PAST IN LONDON.

LONDON, April 16, 1895.

THE Palace of Whitehall and its grounds, so associated with the names of English monarchs and rulers from the days of Henry VIII. to Charles II., occupied the district between

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Charing Cross and Westminster, extending from the Thames up into St. James's Park. Part was burned to the ground in 1691 and the remainder in 1697. The space is now covered with streets, terraces, and public buildings. The boulevard of the Embankment occupies the river front. The ground is intersected by one of the busiest thoroughfares of London—Whitehall. On the east side of Whitehall, opposite the Horse Guards, still stands the old banqueting-hall of the palace. It was built in the Palladian style by Inigo Jones in the reign of James I. The ceiling is embellished with pictures by Rubens—the apotheosis of James I. in the centre, with allegorical representations of Peace and Plenty and scenes from the life of Charles I., the artist's patron. The most striking actual scene in Charles's life was there enacted. He was, on January 30, 1649, led out through one of the windows of the great hall and executed upon a lofty scaffold in front of the building. Under the Georges the pile was converted into a royal chapel, and that it remained until a few months ago.

The Royal United Service Institution, composed of members of the military, naval, and auxiliary forces, was founded in 1830 for the advancement of literary and scientific knowledge connected with the "services." It has a membership of 5,000, holds meetings at which papers are read, and publishes a *Journal*. The society early formed the nucleus of a museum. The collection was until of late wretchedly housed, and admission was to be had only by order from a member. Lately, by arrangement, Government has made over to it the banqueting-hall. Offices and a splendid lecture-theatre have been added. The museum is now arranged in the hall and its basement. It is one of the most interesting collections in London. Admission is at a trifling fixed charge—"soldiers and sailors in uniform free." Old flags wave from the gallery. The walls are covered with the weapons of all times and of all countries. The progress of the musket can be studied from the "brown Bess" to the magazine rifles now adopted by different States. Cannon are there from the rudest of old times and of half-civilized peoples to the most deadly quick-firing ordnance. The uninitiated may learn to realize the difference between "ordinary," "smokeless," and "cordite" powders. The weapons and ammunition of the time of the Crimean war appear almost playthings before present appliances. Large-scale models of war-vessels are there, from the Malay pirate and the ships of the time of James I. and the Hanseatic League, to the great three-deckers of the Napoleonic wars and the destructive 27-knot torpedoes of the present. Everything connected with modern warfare is expensive—these models even must have cost large sums. Perhaps one-fourth of the 6,000 square feet of the great hall is occupied by "models" of the battle of Trafalgar and a plan of the field of Waterloo. This latter is said to contain 190,000 little figures. A passing study of these will tend to a clearer conception of the crowning events in the careers of Nelson and Wellington than would a long course of reading. Much of the armor, weapons, and dresses has been taken in actual warfare.

It is the relics that will perhaps arouse the greatest interest in most minds. There is a heavy anchor taken up within late years from the wreck of a vessel of the Spanish Armada on the coast of Donegal. (How the past and the present are brought together!) The more precious objects are enclosed in glass cases: a portion of the standard presented by Queen Isabella to Pizarro; Commodore Drake's snuff-box; the sword carried by Cromwell at the storm of Drogheda; arms from the field of Culloden; the sword worn by Wolfe when he fell on the Plains of Abraham; scalping-knives and pistols of the Indian auxiliaries on both sides in the War of Independence and in 1812; papers relating to the private signals and the signal-book of the *Chesapeake;* a quadrant and other objects from the wreck of the *Royal George;* Captain Cooke's punch-bowl; his chronometer taken out by Bligh in 1787, and carried by the mutineers in the *Bounty* to Pitcairn's Island—a telescope belonging to the *Bounty*—the prayer-book used by John Adams in his morning and evening services with the descendants of the mutineers. Here, again, are weapons used by the insurgents in Ireland in 1798; Tippoo Saib's pistols found on his body; Sir Ralph Abercromby's pistols. Numerous are the records of Trafalgar—a portion of the *Victory's* flag; Nelson's hat and a lock of his hair; his desk and sword. (The clothes in which he fell are to be seen in the Painted Gallery at Greenwich.) We see before us the officers' sashes used in carrying Sir John Moore from the field at Corunna and lowering him into his grave on the ramparts of the Citadel. There is a memento of an Indian brave in the buffalo powder-horn taken from the body of the Shawnee chief Tecumseh at the battle of the Thames in 1813. Many are the reminders of Waterloo and Napoleon—the skeleton of the charger "Marengo," which the Emperor rode; the pocket-telescope, razors, and shaving apparatus left in his carriage; the desk and chair he used at St. Helena; the saddle of Blücher's horse; a map carried by Gen. Picton and saturated with his blood. A number of pikes used by the "Welsh Chartists at the attack on Newport in 1840" remind us that the present sedate inhabitants of the principality have fiery Celtic blood in their veins, as well as their brethren on the other side of St. George's Channel, whose Fenian pikes are also in evidence. The relics of the Franklin expedition are peculiarly interesting; most of them were brought home by Dr. Rae; one is especially affecting—a silver medal gained by a lad at school in 1830; taken with him (then a lieutenant) to sea in 1845; buried in his grave in the far North three years afterwards; and brought home with his remains in 1880. Numberless are the memorials connected with the Crimean campaign and with the ever-recurring Indian wars of the past century.

I have noted only a few of the principal objects in this absorbingly interesting collection. It was some time before the hurrying crowds and the spring sunshine outside recalled us to the present. D. B.

SOME CONTINENTAL LIBRARIES.—VI.

PARIS, April 12, 1895.

THE English and American nomads who wander up and down the Continent, pitching their tents here and there wherever tent-space proves reasonable and forage good, sooner or later arrive at Florence and meet a new experience. When the date comes which they had fixed for departure, they find that the tent-pegs have been driven within an invisible magic circle over which it is next to impossible to step. Instances are frequent of persons, especially women, who came to stay a year and have stayed twenty; of families who are always going home and never go, even for a visit; of girls who in the enchanted wood have met the fairy prince, etc., etc. Whether it be the beautiful little city itself, which admits of a more intimate affection than a large one; whether it be the enervating influence of the climate, giving rise to a malady similar to that which in the southwestern United States is called the "Texas lingers"; whether it be the unaccustomed presence of all those things which we call "home comforts," it is hard to say. I imagine it is a mixture of the three in proper proportions; but certainly in no other foreign city, large or small, has the English or American resident surrounded himself with so homelike an atmosphere. Shops abound that deal in everything we are used to; churches and doctors, dentists and chemists of our own persuasion are within easy reach; there are enterprising papers edited and published by English-speaking firms; the libraries are much frequented by women, who are made entirely welcome; and finally there is a circulating library of 170,000 to 180,000 volumes, to which popular works, as well as works not so popular, are added as they appear.

Every foreigner who has made use of the Vieusseux Library must regard it as behind our home libraries in only one respect—it is not free. That, however, from a business institution could not be expected. Founded in 1819, it has continued under the management of the same family, with a constantly increasing patronage. Its hours alone would make it popular with the majority of Americans, used to dropping in to their own libraries at almost any time; for the reading-room, with its reviews and journals in all languages, is open from eight A. M. to ten P. M., and the circulating department from nine A. M. to five P. M. Access to the shelves is allowed, and printed finding-lists are kept at the call-desk. When rebound, the books are backed and cornered with Florentine vellum which wears admirably, and in Florence costs much less than elsewhere. Sixteenmos and twelvemos were shown to me the rebinding of which had cost only ten cents, and the largest volumes (a set of Italian Parliamentary Proceedings) had been so bound at a cost of a dollar per volume. The title and number are written in black ink on the vellum back, and a sizing put over it. This prevents the erasure of the ink when the books are washed.

The proportion of Italian readers is small, I was told, and a large proportion of these are Hebrews. The majority of the patrons are the English and Americans, and of these the Americans read the more serious class of books. This is probably owing to the fact that many of the English borrowers are old residents and read for amusement, as they would at home, while the Americans are more likely to be spending a few months only in the city and to be reading up on art matters, Florentine and Italian history, etc. The library sends books not only to other places in Italy, but to subscribers beyond the borders of the country, and is, in fact, the Mudie's of Italy. It circulates single numbers of magazines as well as books, and tries to meet every want of a large reading public. No one who has not subsisted for months on the paper-covered literature of railway book-stalls, or spent a rainy week in a bookless hotel or pension, can appreciate the attraction of such a library in a foreign city.

The specialty of the Biblioteca Riccardiana, in the Palazzo Riccardi, is Italian (and particularly Florentine) MS. history and literature. It is a collection entirely for scholars in these lines, and is therefore less used than the other libraries, but is well worth visiting for the sake of some of its MS. treasures. One that particularly interested me was the note-and-

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account book kept by Benvenuto Cellini, and the entry that first met my eye was that recording the amount paid him for the Perseus which now stands in the Loggia dei Lanzi. The Italian Dante Society has its headquarters and keeps its collection at the Riccardiana; hence the library is rich in Dantean books and MSS.

One need not be either a savant or a librarian to feel impressed with one's visit to the Mediceo-Laurenziana, the Library attached to the Church of San Lorenzo and approached through the cloisters. The entrance and the wooden ceiling, as well as the reading-desks or *plutei*, were of Michelangelo's designing, and to the latter the MSS. are still attached by chains. There are eighty-eight of these desks, which, with the accompanying seats, look a little like church pews. In the shelves under the slanting tops lie hundreds of bound MSS., the richest collection in the world, perhaps, as regards merit. The most choice are under glass, lying open on the inclined top of the desks.

Among other things, there are shown to the visitor who is interested a MS. of Tacitus, the only copy extant containing the first five books of the 'Annals'; the Medicean Virgil of the fourth century; the oldest MS. copy of the Pandects of Justinian, dating from the sixth or seventh century, brought from Amalfi by the Pisans, and afterwards taken by Florence in the wars between the two cities; the best MS. of Cicero's Letters; a beautifully illuminated copy of the 'Shah-Nameh'; Cellini's autograph Memoirs; and Petrarch's 'Canzone,' with full-page portraits on vellum, by Simone Memmi, of Petrarch and Laura. The modern department of the library, containing about 600 volumes, consisting chiefly of books of reference and works having relation to the MS. collection, is called the Biblioteca Delciana. The reading-room is circular, lighted from the top, and would accommodate about a dozen persons, I should think.

The history of this library is full of vicissitudes. Founded by Cosimo the Elder in the sixteenth century, it was continued by his sons, and much enlarged by Lorenzo the Magnificent, who sent collectors into all parts of the world to buy manuscripts for it. When the Medici were expelled, the Signoria confiscated it and placed it under the care of the Convent of San Marco, the monks of which finally bought it. Pope Leo X., Giovanni de' Medici, bought it back into the Medici family and had it brought to Rome. On the death of the Pope, Cardinal Giulio de' Medici sent it back to Florence and commissioned Michelangelo to construct a building for it next the cloisters of San Lorenzo. Clement VII. next interested himself in the collection and finished the building. The grand dukes took little thought for it, and it was probably during their time that many of the manuscripts were lost or mutilated; but the house of Lorraine was more careful, and took pains to guard the treasures and to provide catalogues. During its administration various other collections were added to the library, and the suppressed convents in the present century contributed many additions. In all, there are about 9,000 manuscripts and nearly 5,000 printed books.

The Government Library at Genoa is the Universitaria, occupying rooms on the upper floor of the University building. This, too, had for its basis the library belonging to the Jesuits, and its largest room exhibits the same architecture and general arrangement as the Jesuit library room at the Vittorio Emanuele at Rome. It has the right to a copy of every publication appearing from the press of Genoa and the province of Liguria, but this right does not increase its possessions to any extent. The report of 1893 gives the number of volumes as more than a hundred thousand—very nearly the number in the Marucelliana at Florence. Here first I heard candidly expressed the feeling that many of the old books on the shelves were cumberers of the ground and should make way for modern works of greater utility to students, who, after all, are obliged to live in their own century with the rest of us. The opinion did not, of course, apply to those works which have intrinsic value, or which help to reconstitute the past for us; but the majority of old books on theological subjects belong to neither of these categories.

The catalogues here were placed in the corridor through which all persons passed to enter the library, and were freely used. Some of them were manuscript volumes of forty or fifty years' standing, in constant use, yet showing scarcely a tear. The later volumes on modern paper presented a very different spectacle, and, after making due allowance in view of the greater use of the later catalogues, I could not help feeling a little discouragement at the inferior workmanship of our day in this respect. The first dictionary-catalogue that I had seen in Italy I found here—arranged on cards, by authors, titles, and subjects, in one series; but I was told that an excellent one of the same kind existed at Bologna. The work was only recently begun, but the convenience of it was beginning to be felt by those employed in the library. Nearly three hundred periodicals are taken, of which eleven are in English. There is a reading-room for women, though it is not much used. The building has furnace heat, and it is hoped that electric lighting may be supplied soon; all of which signs of modernity were encouraging or discouraging, according to one's view of the functions of a library. Most of us, I think, would look upon them as hopeful.

The Biblioteca Berio, or Municipal Library of Genoa, is one of the best of its kind in Italy. It is better off than many of the Government libraries, having about 7,600 lire per year to expend in books—a sum of much greater purchasing power than its equivalent in dollars. Its *orario* is the longest in Italy, probably, being from nine A. M. to ten P. M., without intermission, the only reduction being on a few feast days and during the summer vacation, when the hours are from nine to three. Its reading-room is large and well-lighted, looking on an open square, and the tables were all occupied. A system of metal checks as receipts for books in use is employed in this room—one I had never seen before except in the public library at San Francisco. Almost no women come to the library, but the librarian, Commendatore Belgrano, assured us that ample provision would be made for them when they desired it. Here, too, furnace heat has been provided for the past three years. The furnaces are built into the walls and are on a level with the rest of the library, and every precaution is taken against fire, though it would seem almost as easy to set fire to "the stern and rockbound coast" itself as to these stone buildings of Genoa. Electric lighting is hoped for here also. The dictionary-catalogue is another of the library's aspirations. The hours of the library being so long, and the readers chiefly men, there is not much demand for books for home use, about two thousand a year going out in this way. The collection numbers nearly a hundred thousand volumes. A most interesting report on the condition of the library was presented by the librarian and printed in 1888, in which the practical view taken of its scope and management and the ambition to extend its usefulness are most refreshing.

In spite of all I had heard of the Biblioteca di Brera, I should have felt it inadvisable to go out of my way so far as Milan if it had not been for a desire to see the school recently inaugurated in connection with the library. When, therefore, on arriving I found that, partly for lack of funds, the municipality had discontinued it this year, I was greatly disappointed. Strangely enough, this fact did not seem to be known at Florence. The school was at first intended to be one of Bibliology, and an extensive course was prepared by Prof. Fumagalli, the author of the leading work in Italian on library systems. It was found, however, that the students who came were in search of instruction that would take less time, and that would give them a commercial knowledge of books rather than fit them for librarianship; and as the continuation of the school depended largely on its ability to attract students, it was thought best to reduce the course and make it more applicable to the needs of this class. The hope was felt that, once interested in the subject, there might be young men anxious to pursue it further and in the direction first planned. Even with this concession, however, the students were few, and the municipality preferred to spend its funds, which were restricted, in work that would show more encouraging results.

As altered, the course contained not more than forty lessons, under the following heads:

(1.) The book before and (2) after the invention of printing.

(3.) The arts associated in the making of the book.

(4.) The selection of a stock of books and its management.

(5.) History of the book-trade.

(6.) Hints on the care-taking of books.

The greatest number of lessons were to be given on the fourth topic, and the next greatest on the second.

Since 1884, the Brera, which had been a general library, has made a specialty of the historical sciences, literature, philosophy, and social science, aiming to coördinate with the other libraries of the city in forming one large and symmetrical collection. Its Manzoni collection, kept in a separate room, and consisting of MS. editions and translations of Manzoni's works, biographical and critical material, autographs and portraits, is a very choice one and attractively arranged. It contains also the larger part of Manzoni's own library. In the line of social science and political economy the library is the richest in Italy. The number of volumes is about 200,000, the library having a right to copies of all books issued in Lombardy. As Milan is a considerable publishing centre, this right is of great value.

The reference-room was the first I had seen in which women might occupy any seats they chose, no table or room being especially reserved for them. About 6,000 books of reference are collected in this room in open shelves to which students have free access; and current periodicals are kept here also. A modification of the card catalogue invented by Staderini of Rome, in use in several libraries I had visited, was suggestive. The cards, which are square and fastened at one edge into a frame, are turned like the leaves of a book, from right to left, and, the frame being placed on a table with a top inclined at an angle of perhaps thirty degrees, one may stand and run through the contents of the cards with great

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ease. Usually I had found the frame placed horizontally, so that one was obliged to bend the neck most uncomfortably in order to read the titles. Here, as in most of the Government libraries, the arrangement on the shelves is by the size and form of the book. Even when a library reports its classification to be by subject-matter, I have found that this means a primary division into very large classes and subdivisions by size and form.

It was with much regret that I left this library, knowing it to be the last I should see in Italy. Everywhere I had met kindness and courtesy, and if there are indications in Italy, as I cannot help thinking there are, that the people are making a fresh start in the direction of better education and a higher ethical standard, I am persuaded that the libraries, with their encouragement to study and investigation, are responsible in part. The conception of the library as anything but a *higher* institution of learning is not yet generally understood, it is true. There is no effort made to establish libraries of popular books, in order to induce the people to educate themselves. Such an effort on the part of the Government would be impossible at present, for lack of means. Equally impossible does it seem for the Government libraries to step outside of their present province, to take up the work of free circulating libraries. But it seems that the municipalities might do more in this line than they do. The Communal library at Genoa has a large number of workingmen among its Sunday readers, and the evening hours of those libraries that are open in the evening are among the busiest, people coming then who cannot come at any other time on account of their daily occupations. The reference-library does better for men than for women, whose leisure is apt to come a few minutes at a time in the intervals of household occupation, and for whom it is difficult to go out in the evening. For boys and girls, at the age when intellectual curiosity is at its keenest, the library which makes difficult the home circulation of books, or which has books only for persons already instructed, is of no avail as an educator. The Italians, I was told, are not a reading people, and I think it is quite true; but I cannot help thinking also that in Italy as elsewhere a well-calculated supply of free reading to be taken home would create a demand that would surprise those who should undertake to meet it.

MARY W. PLUMMER.

Correspondence.

SOME GRAND-ARMY POSTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Whatever may be the truth in regard to an influential minority of the Grand Army, or however much politicians have used the supposed soldier vote to saddle huge pension-bills on the United States Treasury, yet the tone of your articles in the *Nation* during the last two weeks does substantial injustice to all the posts of the G. A. R. with which I am acquainted. I am not a pensioner and have no pensionable disability. I have been a member of the order for fifteen years, and have belonged to posts in Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, New York, and Connecticut. In all that time I have heard but two subjects that have been at all prominent in the talk and discussions before the post. The first is Memorial Day. The second is the old army life—its pleasures, hardships, trials, and the amusing incidents that occurred. Both politics and pensions seem to be ruled out by common consent and universal desire. I have known an application for membership, already accepted by the post, to be withdrawn because the applicant had learned on inquiry of the members that the post could not help him get his pension claim through, and he is not now a member of the order. Whatever may be the pressure the Grand Army puts upon Congress or upon those in our large cities who have the power of appointment to office, yet I am sure, from my own knowledge, that the tone and spirit of the vast majority of posts in towns and villages is absolutely the opposite of the tone and spirit your articles ascribe to them.

I write this note that you may be apprised of another side of Grand Army life.

Yours truly, T. C. D.

MAY 4, 1895.

THE HELMHOLTZ MEMORIAL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A few months ago Hermann von Helmholtz died, one of the greatest scientific geniuses of all time, whose name will not be forgotten as long as men care for the knowledge of Nature. His invention of the ophthalmoscope made the success of the modern oculist possible, his papers on the conservation of energy gave the strongest impulse to modern physics, his books on seeing and hearing became the basis of modern psychology.

It seems a matter of course that the present generation should express its gratitude in a lasting monument. Not only his friends and pupils all over the world, but men of science and physicians everywhere have supported this idea, and so last month an international committee was formed to collect money for the erection of a great Helmholtz monument in Berlin, where for the last twenty-five years he lived and worked. The plan has nothing to do with local patriotism. America, France, England, Italy, and Russia are represented on the committee; not a decoration of the city of Berlin is in question, but a universal expression of devotion to the spirit of natural science.

No doubt America will take a high place in the list of givers. There has been seldom such an opportunity to show that the United States does not stand behind any other country in intellectual interests. But America has a special reason for paying her respects to the genius of Helmholtz, since Helmholtz, in his seventy-second year, paid his tribute of respect to the genius of America. One year before his death he crossed the ocean, to study and to enjoy the scientific institutions of this country from the Atlantic to the Rocky Mountains, certainly the most famous European who has visited America for many years; and nobody who saw his noble personality in New York or Boston or Baltimore, in Philadelphia or Washington or Chicago, will ever forget him. The American members of the International Committee are Dr. Wolcott Gibbs, President of the National Academy of Sciences; Dr. Hermann Knapp, Professor of Columbia College; and Dr. Hugo Münsterberg, Professor of Harvard University. Contributions may be sent before May 25 to the undersigned, Secretary and Treasurer of the American Committee.

HUGO MUENSTERBERG.

38 QUINCY ST., CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

NORDAU'S 'DEGENERATION.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is nothing less than a calamity that Max Nordau, in his remarkable book on the symptoms of degeneration exhibited by certain writers who have made names for themselves in recent years, has not preserved a just mean in his treatment of his subject, but has allowed his idea, which is a plain, scientific fact when applied to the really bad cases, to so far carry him away that he forgets that a certain amount of unhealthiness of nervous temperament is of no consequence whatever in instances of real genius. As Prof. James points out in the *Psychological Review*, he is really learned not only in contemporary French, English, and German *belles-lettres*, but in the literature of neurological medicine as well; and many of the objects whose odiousness he condemns—Parisian "pornographic" novels especially—are loathsome indeed and deserving of any amount of invective. There never was a book in regard to the value of which two disputants might argue long and both be so fully in the right. If one confines himself to the service which Nordau has rendered by his characterization of the incoherency of much that is run after, and especially of the utter inanity of the most offending of the Frenchmen, one can but praise the book; it is only when he extends his shibboleth to writers who, though his detailed criticism of them is in most instances sound, have in the end far more of strength than of weakness, that he makes the judicious grieve. The book is certain to be widely read, and to furnish ground for much discussion of the relation of morality and decency to art. M.

MAY 4, 1895.

BUTCHERY, NOT TRANSLATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of the article in the last number of the *Nation* (April 25) on Mr. Gonino's translation of the work of Perrot and Chipiez on 'Art in Primitive Greece,' I send you, in a reprint from the *Independent* of the same date, an article by myself on the same subject. From it you will see that your reviewer has really spoken in very mild terms of the performance of Mr. Gonino. I write to you in the hope that the *Nation* may make a stronger protest against the repetition of such outrageous work in the important volumes that are to come. The last six volumes of the great work of Perrot and Chipiez have been butchered by Mr. Gonino in a way that makes them not only unendurable, but an abomination in the eyes of intelligent men everywhere. No one who has not had the misfortune to read the books, can form any conception of the crass ignorance and stupidity displayed by the translator on every page and in every *un*conceivable way. The books in their English dress are a blot upon the scholarship of the age, and, until they are retranslated, can only serve to bring the nascent science of archæology to shame and discredit.

In permitting such atrocious work to issue from their press, the publishers, as your reviewer justly says, have been discourteous to both authors and public. Indeed, they have insulted the intelligence of English-speaking archæologists wherever they may be. In atonement for this the publishers should at once withdraw from the market the last six volumes of this work. They should do this not only in atonement, but in the interest of their own

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good name and of the good name of the authors as well. It should be done, too, as a matter of business, for no man in his senses will think of paying the great price demanded for these books unless he be ignorant of the fact that they have been foully butchered. The publishers should employ at once some competent scholar to revise, almost to retranslate, in fact, the *whole* of Mr. Gonino's work, and then republish the books. Nothing short of this will make them in any way acceptable either to archæologists or to men of general culture. In point of fact, archæologists should unite in a protest against the sale of the books, and above all things against a reappearance of Mr. Gonino.

Your reviewer's estimate of Mr. Armstrong's work on the first volumes of the series is a mistaken one, for Mr. Armstrong's work is nowhere good. It is merely passable; it may be endured, but he too is not above the commission of blunders that are quite on a par with some of Mr. Gonino's. In point of fact, an evil fate has been in constant attendance upon the publication of the work of Perrot and Chipiez in its English dress. J. R. S. STERRETT.

AMHERST COLLEGE, MASS., April 30, 1895.

"CAPITOL."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The earliest citation given by Dr. Murray for *Capitol* as used in this country bears the date 1843, and is by way of England. Previous to the Declaration of Independence, the buildings in which the colonial assemblies held their meetings were known by various names, among them being Assembly House, Capitol, City Hall, Colony House, Court House, State House, and Town House. Capitol and State House seem to be the only terms now used to indicate the buildings in which the State legislatures sit; and the vogue which the former of these has enjoyed in the present century may, with little hesitation, be attributed to the employment of the word when the Federal City was built. Indeed, until that time the term does not appear to have obtained anywhere except in Virginia; and its history there has not been pointed out. Beverly says that originally the term State House was employed in that colony, and this statement is confirmed by evidence obtained from other sources. The State House at James City was burned in October, 1698, and in the following November Sir E. Andros, who had offered to rebuild it in the same place, was succeeded as Governor by Francis Nicholson. It is the latter who is referred to below in the citation from Beverly. In 1780 the seat of government was moved from Williamsburg to Richmond. All of the quotations except the last two refer to the Capitol at Williamsburg.

"Be it enacted . . . that the said building shall forever hereafter be called and known by the name of the *Capitol*, of this his majesty's colony and dominion of Virginia." 1699, *Virginia Statutes at Large* (1823), iii., 420.

"Soon after his Accession to the Government, he caused the Assembly and Courts of Judicature, to be remov'd from *James*-Town, where there were good Accomodations for People, to *Middle-Plantation*, where there were none. There he flatter'd himself with the fond Imagination, of being the Founder of a new City. He mark'd out the Streets in many Places, so as they might represent the figure *W*, in Memory of his Majesty King *William*, after whose Name the Town was call'd *Williamsburg*. There he procur'd a stately Fabrick to be erected, which he placed opposite to the College, and graced with the magnificent Name of the *Capitol*." 1705, R. Beverly, *History of Virginia*, Book i., ch. iv., p. 99.

"Here is a small Fort or rather Battery mounted with 10 or 12 Guns, which were brought thither from *James*-City by order of Col. *Nicholson*, who caus'd a State-house or Capitol to be erected" 1708, J. Oldmixon, *British Empire in America*, i., 273.

"The Cause of my being so particular in describing the *Capitol* is, because it is the best and most commodious Pile of its Kind that I have ever seen or heard of." 1724, H. Jones, *Present State of Virginia* (1865), 30.

"I laid the last top Brick on the Capitol Wall, and so it is now ready to receive the roof. . . . I had laid a foundation brick at the first Building of the Capitol above fifty years ago, and another foundation Brick in April last" 1752, J. Blair, in *Dinwiddie Papers* (1883), i, 146. (The Capitol had been burned in 1746.)

"Dined at the Club, and spent the evening at the Councils Ball at the Capitol." 1770, Washington, *Writings* (1889), ii., 281.

"At the ends of this street are two public buildings, the college and the capitol." 1775, A. Burnaby, *Travels*, 4.

"A propos of the Capitol [at Richmond]. Do my dear friend exert yourself to get the plan begun on set aside, & that adopted which was drawn here [Paris]." 1786, Jefferson, *Writings* (1894), iv. 196.

"A chaste plan sufficiently capacious and convenient for a period not too remote, but one to which we may reasonably look forward, would meet my idea in the Capitol [at the Federal City]," 1792, Washington, *Writings* (1891), xii., 107.

ALBERT MATTHEWS.

BOSTON, April 28, 1895.

Notes.

HENRY HOLT & Co. announce 'Tenement Tales of New York,' by J. W. Sullivan.

'Celibates,' a novel by George Moore, and 'An Experiment in Altruism' are about to be issued by Macmillan & Co.

The younger Dickens has to be more than ordinarily apologetic for his father in his introduction to the reprint of 'Bleak House' from the author's corrected edition of 1869 (Macmillan). Mr. Forster comes in for his share of blame for the failure of the Guild of Literature and Art, Dickens's abolitionist character has to be maintained against Lord Denman, and his criticism of Christian foreign missions against their advocates, while the reproachful shade of Leigh Hunt has to be laid. Not all will agree that the defence is valid at all points. The volume has the merits, including beauty and cheapness, of its predecessors reprinted from first editions.

So much ignorant nonsense is talked and written about Russia, and even most well-educated people have such vague or curious ideas about the land, that we greet every good book on the subject as a valuable acquisition—for example, 'Russian Rambles,' by Isabel F. Hapgood (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Miss Hapgood not only is familiar with the language and ways of the people she describes, she is also capable of feeling with them, of judging by other than a narrow American standard, and of sympathizing with much that was strange to her as it is to her readers. She has, besides, a keen sense of humor and a style that is at times almost too lively. During the two or three years she passed in the empire she learned and observed so much, which she tells so well, that she has given us a volume of distinctly exceptional merit. It is made up of chapters or articles of unequal length, some of which have already appeared in magazines. Moscow and St. Petersburg, a visit to Count Tolstoi, a trip on the Volga, and many interesting scenes in town and country, are equally well depicted. To any one who wishes to get an idea of Russia to-day, leaving out of consideration such serious studies as the great works of Wallace, Rambaud, and Leroy-Beaulieu, we hardly know of any recent book by a foreigner which we should recommend as heartily as 'Russian Rambles.'

Although the little work entitled 'On India's Frontier, or Nepal, the Gurkhas' Mysterious Land' (J. Selwin Tait & Sons), may be quickly read, it suggests the thought that it might profitably have been shortened. It could be boiled down into an interesting magazine article, a narrative of an adventurous journey in a country seldom visited. The attempt to make it something more than this is not a success. The material was sufficiently plentiful, but not every one can write a good book of travel. The author is evidently not a particularly keen observer, and most of his recollections savor of commonplace. His style is usually inadequate, at times positively bad. The headings of the chapters are often sensational, not to say cheap. That of the first of the two numbered xvi, "Impressive Interview with the Maharajah," leads us to expect something more than a few paragraphs which fail to impress the reader in any way. In the second of them, "The Maharajah's Assassination," a good opportunity has been lost for a bit of effective and interesting description. The stirring scenes witnessed by the writer are put into half-a-dozen meagre pages, which are followed by a long extract from the Bombay *Gazette*, containing the irrelevant letter of a French traveller execrably translated, with such expressions as "I know not absolutely why." The last chapter of all is full of rather ill-tempered remarks about English officials in India; then comes a final foot-note with a puff of the author quoted by the publishers from "one of the Calcutta dailies." Still, in spite of its faults, a couple of hours spent on the book is no great waste of time.

It will probably be some time before we know what has happened in Armenia, but it appears certain that massacres have taken place which, whether provoked or not, have been characterized by great and indefensible atrocities. 'The Armenian Crisis in Turkey' (Putnams), by F. D. Greene, "for several years a resident in Armenia," is a contribution to the literature of the subject. It is made up of letters, "largely based on the testimony of refugees from that region or of Kurds and soldiers who participated in the butchery," extracts from magazine articles, general information about the Armenians, about previous massacres, etc. Though the tone of the book is sensational, the comments of the author or compiler are on the whole temperate, even if he makes no allowance for exaggeration or for the fact, which he admits, that "no writer [of the letters] was an actual eye-witness of the massacre," while, like all other advocates of this kind, he is unable to appreciate how difficult and delicate it is for one or more of the European powers to intervene efficiently in such matters. We note the statement that Russian annexation is "a step for which the sufferers themselves are praying," and that "during a residence of four years in eastern Turkey I noticed a marked and rapid alienation of Armenian sentiment from England in favor of Russia, who now seems to them the only source of succor."

We have already reviewed, in the English edition, the first volume of Prof. W. M. Flinders Petrie's 'History of Egypt,' which covers the period from the beginning down to the Eighteenth Dynasty—that is, including the period of the Hyksos domination. The work is now procurable of Charles Scribner's Sons.

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Probably it never occurs to men or women of average common sense that they are competent to enter a machine-shop or a cotton-mill and express an opinion upon the methods of work. But the benevolent layman rarely has such scruples about investigating (the technical expression is "visiting") a hospital whose machinery deals with vital material, and whose output measures health and disease. The few who, with the angels, fear to tread where others cheerfully rush in, should be very glad to study the plain and sensible 'Suggestions to Hospital and Asylum Visitors' that Drs. Billings and Hurd have prepared at Dr. Weir Mitchell's instigation (J. B. Lippincott Co.). It might not be a misapplication of charitable funds to distribute to those who are the censors of the charities, the little book these expert administrators have prepared. Zeal might then be equipped with intelligence.

W. Furneaux's 'Butterflies and Moths [British]' (Longmans) is a decided improvement on many similar works. It shows evidence of care in its preparation, is nicely printed on good paper, and the numerous illustrations are well executed. There are 241 in the text, while twelve colored plates add much to the general attractiveness. Part i. treats of the structure and life-history of the Lepidoptera and of their classification. Part ii. is entitled "Work at Home and in the Field," and in its directions for collecting, rearing, setting and preserving butterflies and moths, and their arrangement in cabinets, it will be found of equal service to British and American entomologists. Parts iii. and iv. are devoted to British butterflies and moths. Of the former the species are so few that place has been found for a figure and description of each one; of the larger moths, all the principal genera are represented in description and figures. A chapter on the micro-lepidoptera is included. An appendix "contains the scientific and popular names of all the British butterflies, Sphinges, Bombyces, Noctuæ, and Geometræ, arranged in their various families and genera," and concludes with a calendar for each month of the year, giving the names of the Lepidoptera that are to be sought for, with directions for the search after them.

The tenth and concluding volume of Edmond Scherer's 'Études sur la Littérature Contemporaine' (Paris: Calmann Lévy) is excellent. It contains twenty-two articles, among which must be named a strong one on "La Rime riche," which is a commentary on Banville's theory not to be passed by; one on Victor Hugo, in which, brief though it is, much is contained and a fair judgment rendered; a brilliant cutting-up of Saintsbury's 'Short History of French Literature;' in which some of the English critic's numerous errors are pointed out; two very interesting and impartial reviews of Bourget; an appreciative one of Green's 'History of the English People'; a striking portrait of "Le Grand Condé"; and, finally, a fine study of "L'Artiste et le Critique," of which Maupassant's 'Pierre et Jean' forms the starting-point. To this wholesome volume, serious and earnest in tone, like all Scherer's work, a general table of contents of the ten volumes is added.

M. H. de la Ville de Mirmont claims his doctorate from the Paris Faculté des Lettres in two volumes (Hachette & Cie.) of more than 1,100 octavo pages in the aggregate. One volume, in French, compares the mythology of Apollonius of Rhodes with that of Virgil. The author propounds the thesis that "the mythology of the 'Æneid' would not be what it is if Virgil had known no other Greek epic than Homer's." This we should be ready to admit *a priori* without these 800 erudite pages. How the delicacies of poetry fare in this learned dust-heap may be judged from one example. We are told that the reason why Virgil so often mentions the dawn is that Aurora was the daughter-in-law of Trojan Laomedon and the mother of Memnon, an ally of the Trojans. The other volume, on the 'Mosella' of Ausonius, deals, in excellent Latin and in the author's exhaustive way, with that exquisite little poem, its origin and date, its sources, metre, and style, and the various imitations to which it has given rise. This volume contains much valuable philological matter, and is in every way worthy of a writer two of whose learned treatises have already been "crowned" by the French Academy.

Heinrich von Poschinger's birthday memorial work has duly appeared, but with an important addition to the title under which it was first announced, being now called: 'Fürst Bismarck: Neue Tischgespräche und Interviews.' These "interviews," the collection of which seems to have been a happy afterthought, have swelled the volume to a large octavo of 427 pages, and form by far the most entertaining and instructive portion of it. The interviewers were American and European journalists, and the conversation was conducted in German, French, or English, according to the nationality of the inquisitor. Peculiarly piquant are the interviews with French journalists, especially that held with Henri du Houx, editor of *Le Matin*, on April 24 and 25, 1890. Interesting, too, is the statement made by Bismarck to the representative of a German-American paper in November, 1866. The Conservative party in Prussia had urged King William to recognize the Southern Confederacy soon after the outbreak of the rebellion, but Bismarck steadily opposed this policy, declaring that, whatever might be the issue of the civil war, the North would always be Prussia's natural ally. Poschinger's work is a much more valuable contribution to contemporary history than the extract from it printed in the February number of the *Deutsche Revue* would indicate. In this respect the "interviews" are superior to the "table-talk."

With characteristic patience, Mr. W. M. Griswold continues at Cambridge, Mass., the compilation and publication of his "Descriptiv Lists" of fiction, to whose utility we have frequently testified. We have now before us such a 'List of Novels and Tales dealing with Ancient History'—a dreary tract, for the most part, though it contains a few masterpieces; and a 'List of American Historical Novels,' in which the quoted "descriptions" or reviews are noticeably liberal in extent. Here the arrangement is conveniently chronological, and comes down even to the Charleston earthquake of 1886. At the other end of the line is 'Behemoth, a Legend of the Mound-builders.'

The feature of the *Book-Buyer* for May is a Bibliography of the original editions of the works of Whittier, compiled by Edward H. Bierstadt.

The Roman *Revista delle Biblioteche*, now beginning its sixth year, will be issued regularly every two months, with an enlarged title (*e degli Archivi*) to indicate its new concern for archives as well as for libraries. Its first fascicule under this arrangement contains some Dante anecdotes by T. Casini, and some observations by Hermann Loevinson on the necessity and the means of improving the quality of ink and paper for use in public offices.

The Secretary of Agriculture has instituted, through the agency of the Weather Bureau, a systematic investigation of climate, and its influence on health and disease. The importance of such an investigation, properly conducted, cannot be overestimated, especially to the increasing army of invalids who are constantly migrating from one section of our country to another in the too often illusory search for health. Such a study of the climates of the United States should be of practical value to every community, and the chief of the Weather Bureau asks for the cordial coöperation of the various sanitary authorities, societies, and physicians, who are willing to send "regularly and promptly" to the Bureau reports of vital statistics from their own localities, on uniform blanks, prepared and distributed, free of charge, on application. As compensation to these professional collaborators will be given all future publications of the Bureau bearing on climatology and its relation to health and disease, the hope being expressed that sufficient data will be secured to justify the publication of a climatological journal resembling somewhat the present Monthly Weather Review.

B. Westermann & Co. send us Parts 11–16 in continuation of the eighth edition of 'Ritter's Geographisch-Statistisches Lexicon,' which nearly conclude the first volume—a consummation to be wished by all who know by experience the value of this admirable gazetteer; also, the eighth of the fifteen parts of Langhans's 'Deutscher Kolonial-Atlas,' showing the German "sphere" in southwest Africa and protectorates and extension in Australia and Polynesia. From Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, we have Part xvii. of Kiepert's 'Grosser Hand-Atlas,' with Africa in full; the middle portion of South America; Chili and the Argentine Republic; the German Empire, etc. The South American sheets are particularly welcome. As usual, an index of names, and physical, vital, and commercial statistics, accompany each map.

The Union and Confederate Geographical Divisions and Departments continue to occupy the issues (33, 34) of the Government 'Atlas to Accompany the Official Records of the Union and Confederate Armies.' The map of the United States is repeated from date to date with fresh boundaries and denominations.

Bulletin No. 3 of the Geographical Club of Philadelphia contains the annual address of the president, Prof. Angelo Heilprin, in which he reviews the recent progress of geographical discovery and indicates some of the tasks remaining for the future explorer. These relate to the regions about the Bering Sea and Strait with a view to investigate the relations between Asia and America; West Central Africa and its pigmy race; and the coral islands, as the Bermudas, for the purpose of determining the nature of their origin. An account of a journey through Alsace and Lorraine by Mr. T. W. Balch, is given in Bulletin No. 4. It is illustrated, and has a map showing the lines of defence of northeastern France.

The latest brochure of the *National Geographic Magazine* contains an essay on Oregon, its history, geography, and resources, by Senator Mitchell. History preponderates; geography is subordinate and unscientific. The early misconceptions of the character of the region are well presented.

The list of geographical publications, for many years prepared by Koner and, until his death in 1887, published in the *Verhandlungen* of the Gesellschaft für Erdkunde of Berlin, has now been replaced by a separate volume issued by the society, with the title 'Bibliotheca Geographica,' prepared by O. Baschin. The first number, lately issued, is for 1891 and 1892, a stout octavo volume of 506 pages (Wester-

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mann); the number for 1893 is promised soon. The titles are well arranged; general works in various departments of geography coming first, and descriptive works being afterwards carefully classified according to localities.

The Geographical Society of Munich celebrates the twenty-fifth anniversary of its foundation by publishing a special volume of essays by Ratzel, Penck, Günther, and others. A list of geographical works on Bavaria is contributed by Gruber; and an account by Ammon of the geology of the region around Munich, well illustrated by map and plates, will prove valuable to visitors to the capital who have scientific interests. The glacial phenomena characteristic of the Alpine foreland are excellently displayed in the neighborhood.

Prof. Gustav Hirschfeld of the University of Königsberg died in Wiesbaden on April 20, after a long and heroic fight with cancer. In the vain hope of obtaining relief, he even came to America and became an inmate of the New York Cancer Hospital for a time. In his great and minute knowledge of Asia Minor and all matters pertaining thereto he was easily without a peer. He was a Jew, gifted with intellect and charm of manner as are few men. He died in the very prime of manhood.

By a typographical error we gave a wrong address for subscriptions to the contemplated Stevenson memorial fountain in San Francisco. They should be sent to Mr. W. D. Armes, University of California.

—The event of the month among the magazines is the appearance in *Scribner's* of the first part of Mrs. Humphry Ward's dramatic study in feminine criminology. The action on this rustic stage has already waxed to a crisis of a degree of complexity that only a strong hand could so swiftly and inevitably have developed. The number also supplies to the reader an eclectic review of the crotchets, fads, and interests of divers of his contemporaries. Judge Howland is especially happy on the subject of golf—not, perhaps, tenderly solicitous to instruct and help forward the beginner, but a primed exponent of all (some may even think more than) "there is in" the game the Scot and his imitators hold dear. The article on "French Posters and Book-Covers," by Arsène Alexandre, leaves, with its capital illustrations, nothing to desire—unless to the deeply bitten—in information about the subject of the latest collector's mania, the best-known prizes of which are the work of Chéret, Grasset, or Willette, whose influence may even now be dimly detected on almost any advertisement board or sheet. The district must be remotely rural that can find nothing personal to itself in Joseph Wetzler's discussion, "Will the Electric Motor Supersede the Steam Locomotive?"; while a short, informal account of the Impressionists comes, at the hand of Jean François Raffaelli, from the fountainhead. It is interesting to learn that this artist's own choice of a class-name would have been the "Characterists," as defining "the whole artistic movement of our time"—"the search for what is characteristic." Finally, there is a story, "The Martyrdom of John the Baptist," by Wolcott Le Clear Beard, which gives with skilful reticence and a picturesque concentration of effect an impression of life as it is passed by those who dwell in the adobe habitations of Frog Tanks, at the foot of the Sierra Tucson, in the midst of the Arizona desert.

—It is more than a coincidence, it is a sign of the times, that each of the magazines in turn more or less directly brings into notice this Territory and the section to which it belongs. The *Century* contains a valuable account of the actual and possible redemption of the 800,000,000 acres of desert lying west of the line of the one hundredth meridian. The reclamation of Utah by its Mormon settlers, of Greeley in Colorado, of the Salt River Valley in Arizona, and, better known to the tourist, of Riverside in California, is described by pen, statistic, and picture as part of the accomplished work of the "miracle of irrigation." A forecasting of the stupendous work yet to be done in this region, vast enough to accommodate the entire present population of the United States, with "social and industrial systems better and purer than any the past has known," leads by a logical sequence to two questions of national importance: the first, how the Government shall dispose of its own half billion of irrigable acres, "the priceless heritage of the children of America"; the second, what means it shall take for the preservation of the forests, "nature's storage reservoirs." The loss, "by fire and avarice," that delay in the last issue is involving is only less enormous than the national callousness that suffers it to go on. This paper, "The Conquest of Arid America" by name, is the one completed article of note in the number, though a portrait of Rubinstein is accompanied by some readable reminiscences of the composer.

—The prevailing paucity of matter over which it is worth while to linger in *Harper's* is relieved by the addendum to the foregoing topic. Here the exploitation of sand and oasis is in the form of a story, "La Tinaja Bonita," by Owen Wister. The fictional element sinks promptly into the Lethean regions of the reader's consciousness, and what is left distinct is a haunting impression of the agonies of man and beast in a death in this New World desert, or, to be more exact, in the death that follows to a certainty upon the torture and delirium of drought unless the relieving water, if found, is taken drop by drop—not quaffed with the eagerness of desire. To appreciate the general unsatisfactoriness of the illustrations to a description of the Museum of the Prado in general, and of Velazquez in particular, nothing more is needed than a comparison with the fine frontispiece to *Scribner's*—a reproduction, by still another coincidence, of a work of the same master.

—It is, finally, in the favoring atmosphere of Flagstaff, Arizona, that the series of observations which form the basis of the paper on Mars in the *Atlantic* have lately been made. Although the superscription of this admirable paper is astronomical, and its contents reveal an intimacy with the physical conditions of the ruddy planet that may well make wonder grow at what the specialist's eye and reason combined can discover, its object is one "which appeals romantically, at least, to everybody." This is to determine whether Mars is peopled by intelligent beings, "although physically they be utterly unlike us, more goblins than men or animals." The present paper sums up the proofs from the existence of an atmosphere; the forthcoming one will deal with the proofs from the existence of water, the second of the two things in nature vital "to all forms of life of which we have any conception." Mr. Lowell's graceful literary handling of this scientific theme must strike even the most cursory readers not less than the opposition between his convincingly reasoned conclusions and those of Prof. Holden in the current issue of the *North American Review*. It is a pleasure to be able to praise also the literary form of a paper, "A Week on Walden's Ridge," written from a naturalist's point of view by Bradford Torrey, and also to find that, although Miss Repplier has changed her skies, she has changed nothing for the worse in her apposite manner of disposing of her subject. There are, indeed, features in her description of "Christmas Shopping at Assuân" that incline one to predict an agreeable development in an already agreeable talent. Some letters of Dr. Benjamin Rush, the defamer of Washington, edited by Paul Leicester Ford, fall in, in general drift, with a paper by John Bach McMaster, which has the somewhat thankless task of showing "The Political Depravity of the Fathers."

—New information on Madagascar, even though scanty, is to be welcomed in these days. M. Émile Gautier, in a lecture delivered at the Sorbonne in February, upon his return from the island, and published in the 53d *Bulletin de l'Alliance Française*, tells us that among the Hovas 100,000 pupils are being taught in some 8,000 schools by an equal number of indigenous teachers, the latter having been trained through the agency of 225 missionaries and four primary normal schools—a very satisfactory showing, if we place the entire Hova population, according to a recent German authority, at about one million, or one-third of the population of the island. The native teachers read and write well their own language and know the rudiments of some sciences and of a European language; in fact, there are several hundred thousand natives who read and write their language in Latin characters, and, still better, material for reading is provided for them. From six printing presses are issued books, both sacred and secular, and a considerable number of magazines, some even illustrated, besides two newspapers. Native clerks are already employed in French offices. M. Gautier regretfully adds that the work of civilization has been carried on in a large measure "by the enemies of France." Of the 8,000 teachers only 640, and only 17,000 of the 100,000 pupils, fall to the account of French missionaries, the remainder to English or Norwegian. On the other hand, it is a consoling thought that the Hovas do not seem to care whether their children are taught by English or French, by Protestant or Catholic, teachers; sons of the same family go, one to the French missionary, another to the English, a third to the Norwegian. They are largely attached to a religion which has more adherents in France than in England, the "*je m'en fichisme*." M. Gautier's account of the bootless endeavors of Norwegian missionaries among the Sakalavas, the other great tribe of the island, seems to leave little room for doubt of their refractoriness, thus far, to all civilizing influences, whether Mohammedan or Christian.

—M. Paul Bourget's 'Outre-Mer' comes again in a new English dress and in handsome binding from the house of Charles Scribner's Sons. It has already been discussed at such length as instalment after instalment appeared in the press, the book itself is so long and parts of it so lacking in genuine interest, that an extended review is unnecessary. It gives the impression of being written too soon, before the "shocks" and "sensations" had resolved themselves into more definite and permanent shape. It is, indeed, a series of notes and sketches with conclusions come to and judgments formed that one cannot always agree with. But it is a singularly interesting work in that it comes from a trained and practised observer, who

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sees and notes things which most of us merely glance at and straightway forget. The things are so, for the most part, only they either do not strike us at all or strike us lightly and differently. Americans rebel at being pictured as M. Bourget pictures them, but it is well to remember that as they appear, so they are to him —and in a less degree to the average foreigner. It must be allowed, on the other hand, that the French observer is at times under the influence of a theory, formed too easily, and to which, unconsciously, he seeks to adapt some part of what he notes. Yet there is deep truth in Bourget's description of much that marks American life and character, the crudity in certain matters, the love of display, the garishness, the feverishness, the restlessness. These traits it is unpleasant to be reminded of, especially by a master in the art of torturing analysis. Of the translation it can be said that it is above the average and reads easily, only occasionally calling up a smile or causing a knitting of the brows. In these days of misrepresentations of foreign tongues this is much to be thankful for.

—The first volume of Hatzfeld, Darmsteter and Thomas's 'Dictionnaire Général de la Langue Française, du commencement du XVIIe siècle jusqu' à nos jours' (Paris: Delagrave) is completed, and a first instalment of the second volume has appeared. The work maintains the high standard set by its authors, and, even in its incomplete form, is constantly referred to by every earnest student of French, having already acquired the rank of an undoubted and trustworthy authority. Less bulky than Littré or the Academy, the Hatzfeld-Darmsteter is destined to be the dictionary of general reference, the others keeping their position, of course, as on the one hand a storehouse of information, and on the other as the official authority. The plan adopted by the authors consists in first tracing the etymology of a word, and next accurately defining its original meaning, its present standard meaning, and finally its varied meanings, as they happen to be technical, special, or more general as caused by extension. In this way the history of the word is seen at a glance, and how valuable this is in tracing the changes in its signification need not be dwelt upon. For general practical purposes the new dictionary enables the student to dispense with a special dictionary of synonyms, as the shades of meaning are clearly brought out, not by definitions alone, but by abundant and well-selected examples. Idioms and proverbial expressions are in a similar way rendered quite intelligible, as may readily be seen by reference to the word *eau*, for instance, *franc*, with its numerous compounds, or *frais*. The work will be indispensable, and no higher praise can be given to it than this. It should be added that the print is particularly good, easy to read, and that the varieties of type employed greatly facilitate reference. According to the original announcement, the completed work should consist of two volumes; judging, however, by the contents of the first, it may be assumed that it will comprise three.

—The discovery of a new race in Egypt was announced by Prof. Flinders Petrie on April 17 to the Royal Society, Edinburgh. He has found traces of it throughout a district stretching for a hundred miles along the western bank of the Nile south of Abydos, but mainly at a spot thirty miles north of Thebes. Here, on the top of the plateau, 1,400 feet above the river, are the remains of a town with a cemetery in which he has excavated nearly two thousand graves. In them "not a single Egyptian object was found—not one scarab or cartouche, not one hieroglyph, not one piece of usual funereal furniture, a head-rest, or a kohl-pot, not one Egyptian bead, not one god, not one amulet, not a single piece of Egyptian pottery such as was found abundantly in the neighboring Egyptian town. And not one body was mummified or buried at full length; all were contracted, with the knees bent up to the arms." There were in the graves, however, adzes, needles and harpoons made of copper, exquisitely finished flint knives, beautifully formed stone vases, wrought by hand out of alabaster as well as hardest syenite, glazed crystal beads, and exquisitely colored pottery. This, too, was made by hand, the use of the wheel being apparently unknown. There are no traces of writing, beyond personal marks, nor of hieroglyphs, and the figures of animals are rudely drawn. The race was one of remarkable stature, some individuals being over six feet high. They had brown, wavy hair, prominent aquiline noses, and long-pointed beard, having a "strong resemblance to the Libyan and Amorite type." The condition of some of the bodies indicates the prevalence among them of ceremonial funereal cannibalism. From the relations of these remains with other tombs and monuments in this same spot, Prof. Petrie is inclined to regard this race as the people, possibly Libyans, "who overthrew Egyptian civilization at the close of the old kingdom, and so produced that dark age of the seventh and eighth dynasties, when the Egyptians seem to have been narrowed and oppressed by disaster"—that is, about 3000 B. C. Another discovery, of purely classical interest, was that of a more modern Egyptian town within a quarter of a mile of this ancient settlement, which proved to be the Nubt-Ombos mentioned in the 15th Satire of Juvenal. This clears up an old obscurity which has long puzzled his commentators, this town being close to Tentyra [Denderah] as he states, while the only hitherto known Ombi was one hundred miles distant.

ARISTOTLE'S THEORY OF POETRY.

Aristotle's Theory of Poetry and Fine Art. With a Critical Text and Translation of the Poetics. By S. H. Butcher, Litt.D., LL.D. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

To a certain order of minds a revolt against Aristotle is perfectly comprehensible. With Plato it is absolutely impossible to quarrel. He is a manner of divine "Weltkind"; but the master of those who know is so very knowing and so very sensible that the spirit of contrariety is aroused in those who are not perfectly amenable to dictation. When he says, in his cock-sure way, παρὰ ταῦτα οὐδέν, "That's all," the unregenerate soul yearns to prove that there is something else. When he brings out his "irrefutable sign," there are those who sympathize with one Alexinos when he expresses his weariness of the inevitable illustration—nay, more, rejoice to learn that the proof is not an infallible proof, and that milk has been found in men as well as in mothers. When he tells us, with his air of superior wisdom, not less offensive because his wisdom *is* superior, that "the sea-fight at Salamis and the battle with the Carthaginians took place on the same day, but did not tend to the same result," there are those who delight to think him blind to the larger historical aspects of things, who see a concerted movement that has suffered a double check, and who would no more divorce Salamis and Himera than they would divorce Gettysburg and Vicksburg, or would, at all events, say, with Freeman, "Hellas against Canaan, the elder Hellas against the elder Canaan, the younger against the younger, that was the cause to be judged on that memorable day"—only Freeman is another dictator who is apt to provoke dissent.

It is really very much a matter of temperament, as was said long ago, how a man stands affected towards Aristotle; and the revived interest in the great thinker due to the discovery of the 'Constitution of Athens' has evoked a good deal of animosity that manifests itself in many curious ways. Those are not all friends of Aristotle who believe in the Aristotelian authorship of the 'Constitution of Athens.' But the interest is undeniable, and does not seem to diminish with the lapse of time. The great edition of Sandys, which seemed sufficiently comprehensive to satisfy scholars at least for a brief space, was followed immediately by Kaibel's one volume on the style and text of the 'Constitution of Athens,' and Wilamowitz-Moellendorff's two on Aristotle and Athens—both works that deserve the closest attention. Indeed, one looks with dismay at the so-called literature that has gathered about the 'Constitution of Athens' since the time when Mr. Stead, in the *Review of Reviews*, called that important but somewhat disappointing resuscitation "the book of the month." And just as 'Trilby' gives a fillip to 'Peter Ibbetson,' and Hall Caine's 'Manxman' revives his earlier experiments, so the 'Constitution of Athens' seems to have called for new editions and new handlings of the 'Nicomachean Ethics' and the 'Politics,' both prime favorites with English scholars.

But Aristotle's æsthetics are not so much to the fancy of the average Briton as the 'Ethics' and the 'Politics.' The 'Rhetoric,' to be sure, has not been wholly neglected, and we had occasion some years ago to notice Mr. Welldon's translation of that treatise. But a large part of the 'Rhetoric' is applied logic, applied psychology, whereas the heart of Aristotle's æsthetic theories is to be sought in the 'Poetics'; and although Englishmen themselves had led the way to a juster appreciation of the 'Poetics,' there seems to have been an undercurrent of national resentment against a treatise to which French critics and French dramatists appealed for the cramping doctrine of the three unities. To be sure, it had been shown generations ago that Aristotle was not so narrow as he had been represented to be by people who had not studied him, and the famous "purgation of the passions" had been made a more intelligible process by Bernays, who was in close sympathy with the earlier and more robust type of English scholarship, and who counted among his admirers and friends some of the best English scholars of his generation. But the average Philistine would not heed the protest that Aristotle was not responsible for the French three unities. Shakspere had been insulted, and that was enough. And as for the Bernaysian *katharsis*, that was too much in the style of Molière's *ensuilta purgare* in the "Malade Imaginaire." But, whatever the reason, the 'Poetics' has been neglected by insular scholars so that a whole century has elapsed between the critical edition of Tyrwhitt in 1794 and the critical edition of Prof. Butcher.

Prof. Butcher's text steers between Susemihl and Vahlen—between Susemihl, who, ac-

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cording to Prof. Butcher, "carries conjecture too far," and Vahlen, "whose adherence to the Parisian MS. borders on superstition"; and, so steering, is more closely coincident with the text of Wilhelm Christ than with any other. The doctrine of the dominant MS., like the doctrine of an infallible church, is a very great comfort to those who stick to it resolutely; but moments of infidelity come to the stoutest believer, and the temptation to make sense of a passage is too much for most of us at times. A luminous correction in an inferior MS. makes one crave some authority outside of the chance divination of a late reader. We swear by our Laurentianus, our Ambrosianus, in theory, but in practice we are prone to follow the example of the Israelites of old and disport ourselves in the groves of strange gods.

However, in this case, points of textual criticism, which cannot be considered here, will hardly affect the reconstruction of Aristotle's æsthetic catechism, which can be reproduced from the 'Poetics' with the help of his other works; and this reconstruction, with a consequent reinterpretation, is the aim of Professor Butcher's book, which he has entitled 'Aristotle's Theory of Poetry and Fine Arts.' The text of the 'Poetics' is faced by an idiomatic translation for which Hellenist and non-Hellenist alike will be grateful, for in an author like Aristotle a translation is often the best commentary, and it may be said here by way of parenthesis that if a translation is to be published with the text, as is very fashionable nowadays, it is well to put it as Professor Jebb has done and Professor Butcher has done—facing the text, and not as an appendix. The rendering ought to look the original in the eye, and not force the unlucky reader to have another copy of the text before him or to "shift from side to side by turns," like the fever-stricken wretch in the hymn-book. The translation is, as was to be expected of such a master as Professor Butcher, clear and fluent and idiomatic, and a contrast in its easy flow to the crabbedness and jottiness, so to speak, of the original; so that the translator has made the 'Poetics' accessible to those who are outside the Aristotelian lecture-room. He has given us Aristotle the man of the world rather than Aristotle the professor, and most people will think it a blessed change. And what is more, it is a legitimate change, for Aristotle has more than one style, and we have been taught of late that he was extraordinarily sensitive to his environment and reflected at every turn the authors with whom he was brought into contact. The association with Professor Butcher has evidently done him good.

The essays which follow the text and translation of the 'Poetics' are not all new; in fact, they are for the most part repetitions and expansions of certain chapters in the first edition of 'Some Aspects of the Greek Genius,' a work which was received with deserved favor, and which has been republished with the omission of the Aristotelian chapters and the addition of other matter. New in this volume are chapter vii. on the "Dramatic Unities," and chapter viii. on the "Ideal Tragic Hero." In view of all the tortures the scholars have suffered from *duplex recensio* and *contaminatio*, one cannot help fancying what would be the state of mind of a student who should try to find out without the help of the prefaces the exact relation of the earlier Butcher to the later, for several of the titles are changed, and the order is varied so that one is reminded of the 'Politics' or Propertius by i (i) ii (iii) iii (iv) iv (ii) v (vi) vi (viii) [vii] [viii] ix (ix) x (v) xi (vii). The new arrangement is a criticism of the old, but neither order seems to be inevitable, and a sketch-map of the ground to be traversed would have been welcome. The headings of the chapters do not quite suffice.

Without derogating from the merit of the new chapters, the two essays that are of most importance and interest to readers and author alike are the essay on "Imitation as an Æsthetic Term" and the essay on "The Function of Tragedy," in which the modern views of the *katharsis* are set forth. Prof. Butcher is not a thorough-paced Aristotelian, and recognizes freely the fact that Aristotle more than any other writer "has suffered from the intemperate admiration of his friends." "A far truer respect would have been shown him," he adds, "had it been frankly acknowledged that in his *Poetics* there are oversights and omissions which cannot be altogether set down to the fragmentary character of the book; that his judgments are based on literary models which, perfect as they are in their kind, do not exhaust the possibilities of literature; that many of his rules are tentative rather than dogmatic; that some of them need revision or qualification." In short, Prof. Butcher seems to have some degree of allowance for the rebellious spirits mentioned in the opening of this notice. But as to "Imitation," he contends that Aristotle is quite right, if we interpret the word as an æsthetic term correctly. It is, to be sure, "a somewhat infelicitous term" which Aristotle had inherited from his predecessors, but he has charged it with a new meaning which it is our business to discover. By "Imitation" Aristotle does not mean "a literal copy, a mere facsimile of the world of experience." "Imitative art in its highest form, namely, poetry, is an expression of the universal element in human life." "Art, in imitating the universal, imitates the ideal; and we can now describe a work of art as an idealized representation of human life—of character, emotion, action—under forms manifest to sense."

The other important chapter on "The Function of Tragedy," or the doctrine of the *katharsis*, has remained essentially the same with slight expansions and little corrective touches. The *katharsis* Prof. Butcher takes, with Bernays, to be a medical metaphor, and the process of purgation a homœopathic process. "But it is only under certain conditions of art that the homœopathic cure of pity and fear by similar emotions is possible." We must rise from the particular to the universal, and it is this universality as the "characteristic note" of Aristotle that commends him to the student of Greek life and human life. And this is the drift of all Prof. Butcher's teaching; this must be the burden of every true prophet of Hellenism, though few prophets of Hellenism have Prof. Butcher's clear vision and his attractive style. "All that has been bequeathed to us by Greece," he said in the preface to his former volume, "is modern almost as truly as it is ancient; for it rests on the essential sameness under all circumstances of man's nature and faculties." Greek literature mirrors our every-day life. Aristophanes comments on the follies of American society, the vices of American politics, and the fallacies of American finance; and when we read the soliloquy of Ajax in Sophocles, we think of Gen. Chang at Wei-Hai-Wei. This essential universality of Greek life and Greek literature shows itself also in the universality of Greek æsthetics as summed up by Aristotle, and it is Prof. Butcher's great merit to have handled not only with complete mastery of the subject, but with clearness, vividness, unfailing charm of style, and spontaneous happiness of illustration, a subject which would naturally escape into the realm of arid technicalities and abstruse formulas.

FLINT'S SOCIALISM.

Socialism. By Robert Flint, Professor in the University of Edinburgh. London: Isbister & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1895.

THE world may well be weary of socialism, both in fact and in name; but it is idle to suppose that the movement is going to die out after a time. It is as permanent as envy and discontent, and it is as truly described now as in the time of Aristotle as the perversion or corruption of democracy. Since this form of government is likely to prevail generally in the future, there is certain to be a steady tendency towards socialistic experiments; and unless the conservative forces of society are concentrated in opposition to this tendency, we may presently witness some episodes as startling as the French Revolution. Prof. Flint justly observes that to ignore a movement of this kind for fear of propagating it by talking about it, is not the part of wisdom. His purpose, therefore, is to study the phenomenon with care, to examine its causes and its consequences, and to watch its progress. Like Gamaliel, he favors no violent measures of repression; inclining rather to wait and see if the socialistic counsel, being of men, will not come to naught.

Socialism, according to Prof. Flint's definition, is any theory of social organization which sacrifices the legitimate liberties of individuals to the will or interests of the community. The objection to such a definition as this is obvious. It is meaningless unless we have a previous definition of legitimate liberties; which it is not an easy matter to furnish. Prof. Flint, in the course of his discussion, does furnish approximately such a definition, and in this way meets the objection. Yet we incline to regard the definition offered by Mr. Bradlaugh in his debate with Mr. Hyndman as having peculiar merit. "Socialism," he said, "denies individual private property, and affirms that society organized as the State should own all wealth, direct all labor, and compel the equal distribution of all produce." Undoubtedly, as Prof. Flint urges, there are many socialists who do not go to this length. But it is immaterial that those who profess a doctrine do not in practice carry it out. The premises upon which socialism rests are undeniably those stated by Mr. Bradlaugh, and without these premises no socialistic movement, whether moderate or extreme, can be justified.

In his criticism of other definitions, however, Prof. Flint appears to us to be frequently very just and very keen. Bishop Westcott, for example, declared that socialism seeks such an organization of life as shall secure for every one the most complete development of his powers. This is exactly the aim of those who believe in human freedom, and who are, properly or improperly, now commonly called individualists. As Prof. Flint says:

"In its two great forms of communism and collectivism, socialism is, of all economic and political systems, the one which most manifestly treats humanity as merely a mass or sum of individuals. The 'society' to which it sacrifices individuals is just the majority of individuals. What it aims at is not . . . the attainment of the highest good of the whole and of every one in relation to the whole, but the attainment of the equal good of all, however much sacrifice of the exceptional and higher good of any may be requir-

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ed for that purpose. Socialism as an historical reality demands the equality of individuals in regard to means, opportunities, labor, and enjoyment. It directly appeals to the egoism and selfishness of the great majority of individuals."

In emphasizing equality as the very essence of socialism, these observations of Prof. Flint's go to the bottom of the subject.

It may be doubted if the theories of Karl Marx are worth any one's powder and shot. It is very improbable that those who profess these theories would be affected by appeals to their reason; but in any case we must confess that Prof. Flint's appeals are a little weak in their logic. He does not appear to be quite at home in political economy, and labors under the impression that Ricardo's demonstrations furnish the basis for Marx's inflated superstructures. Marx himself perhaps believed that his conclusions flowed logically from Ricardo's premises, but, as Prof. Marshall has very clearly shown, such a belief is without foundation. It must be admitted that Prof. Flint has better company than Karl Marx in misunderstanding Ricardo, but there is no such obscurity in Ricardo's language as to justify Prof. Flint's economic dogmas. Prof. Flint flatly declares that it does not take even double the quantity of labor to procure a given quantity of gold that it takes to procure the same quantity of silver. "It does not require more labor to extract or gather gold than to work in a coal or tin mine." In other words, he appears to maintain that the labor of a thousand men, applied to producing gold, would procure at least half as many ounces of gold as the same labor would procure of silver, if applied to the production of that metal. Fortunately the refutation of socialistic theories does not depend upon such exceptionable statements as these.

Nor is Prof. Flint more profound in his criticism of Mill. Mill declared "that the sole end for which mankind are warranted, individually or collectively, in interfering with the liberty of action of any of their number is self-protection; that the sole purpose for which power can be rightfully exercised over any member of a civilized community, against his will, is to prevent harm to others." Prof. Flint declares that the production of good is as legitimate an aim as the prevention of harm. It must be admitted that Mill's principle is a purely formal one, and it cannot be denied that the prevention of harm tends to the production of good. But the value of Mill's principle lies in its recognition of human liberty as an end in itself. It compels legislators, or would if they paid attention to it, to have proof that an action is reasonably certain to cause more harm to others than will be caused by its prohibition before they prohibit such action. In short, Mill's doctrine regards individual liberty as intrinsically good, and it regards restraint upon this liberty as an evil, only to be tolerated in so far as it tends to establish more liberty than it suppresses. As a guiding principle in legislation this is far safer than the "promotion of the general welfare" without reference to the liberties of the subject. All the positions that have been won by men in their struggle against despotic rule have been won against the claim of Government to promote the good of its subjects, and through the assertion of the right of individuals to determine for themselves in what their welfare consists. That is the sum and substance of all our bills of rights.

We should be conveying an altogether wrong impression of Prof. Flint's teaching did we not hasten to acknowledge that he practically admits this truth. He maintains that there are simple, definite, and well-ascertained moral laws which both states and individuals ought to recognize. There are certain fundamental human liberties essential to the true nature of man. There are economic laws which cannot be violated with impunity. Moreover, what the state can and cannot do, may do well or must do ill, is determinable by reflection enlightened by experience. Whenever the intervention of the state tends to diminish self-help and individual energy, it is unwise. And, finally, what Government may undertake is very largely determined by the state of public opinion. "It is not enough that a Government should be itself convinced of the justice and expediency of its intervention; it is also important that the justice and expediency thereof should be perceived by the nation at large."

These propositions appear to us to constitute a definite and substantially complete doctrine of the limits of governmental activity, and they are stated and expounded with admirable lucidity and fairness by Prof. Flint. His book is full of suggestive criticisms of socialistic doctrines and tendencies, put in such a way as to arrest the attention and convince the understanding of the ordinary reader. As to the iron law of competition which has called forth so much denunciation, he recognizes at once the principle that humanity requires the State to relieve the destitute and helpless whenever private charity fails; but with this qualification he shows that industrial competition is nothing but industrial liberty—the affirmation of every man's right to labor, and to live by his labor. "The real opposite of competition or liberty is compulsion or slavery, the authoritative assignment to each man of the work which he has to do." Concerning the attitude of socialism towards the institution of the family, he shows that it is impossible to controvert Morris and Bax when they declare that under socialism the development of the family is to take place "on the basis, not of a predetermined lifelong business arrangement, to be formally and nominally held to, irrespective of circumstances, but on mutual inclination and affection—an association terminable at the will of either party." And concerning democracy, he asks the pertinent question whether it raises to leadership the ablest, wisest, and best, or the incompetent and unworthy.

The chapters upon "Socialism and Morality" and "Socialism and Religion" are full of good sense and wise counsel. Socialism is, strong in its recognition of the great principle of human brotherhood, but hitherto its application of this principle suggests a paraphrase of the characterization of the Irish—"Fighting like divils for conciliation, and hating each other for the love of man." "As yet it has led chiefly to hatred and strife, violence and bloodshed, waste and misery." "The leaders of Socialism have largely acquired their power by appealing not to the reasons and consciences, but to the envy, the cupidity, and the class prejudices of those whom they have sought to gain to their views."

We could quote indefinitely from the store of wisdom which Prof. Flint has accumulated for us, but it is much to be wished that every one who desires to learn what socialism means should read this book for himself. It would be a real service to the public to revise it, omitting the notes, which are of interest only to scholars, and the tiresome and technical discussion of Marx, and to offer it in a cheap edition.

RECENT FICTION.

Men Born Equal. By Harry Perry Robinson. Harper & Brothers.

The Tale of Chloe, and Other Stories. By George Meredith. Ward, Lock & Bowden.

The Mermaid: A Love Tale. By L. Dougall. D. Appleton & Co.

Entrückt in die Zukunft: Socialpolitischer Roman von Theodor Hertzka. Berlin; F. Dümmler: New York: Westermann.

THE drift of argument in 'Men Born Equal' is not towards proof of the truth and triumph of the idea of natural equality, but of its fallacy and at least temporary failure in the United States. This is a very serious work, and respectable in motive, sentiment, and composition. It would be more entertaining if neither of those qualities was so conspicuous. It is the story of an honest, educated, and intelligent young man who is regarded as one of the leaders of a political party formed by fusion of Populists and Democrats in a Western State. From the beginning he is seen to be uncommonly ingenuous, which is prophetic of a short term in politics and significant of the author's intention to scatter the Populist hosts as the leaves of the forest when autumn hath blown. The young enthusiast, Mr. Marsh, is an orator. The oratorical habit is so confirmed that he cannot resist it at dinners, luncheons, or even afternoon teas. Vainly do elderly important Republicans enter into competition; their most ponderous and stately utterance is but fuel for his consuming flame. No quip or merry jest is allowed to disturb the solemnity of his careful periods, and he seems always to be talking the printed leaders of well-informed country journals whose readers would resent any attempt to please with a rattle or tickle with a straw. The silent and deadly political work is done by an Irish boss, an astute Democratic candidate, and a "delegate" who eggs the Labor Unions on to strikes and riot with an eye sternly concentrated on his own interests. These well-known figures are drawn from life with accurate knowledge of the game and their way of playing it. They, of course, lie and scheme and steal right under young Mr. Marsh's nose, and it takes a series of tragic accidents to open his eyes and show him what they are about. Some of these accidents are quite in the line of expectation, but two at least—a murder and a suicide—are gratuitous, and suggest that the author is offering tardy compensation for a suspected dulness in the lengthy political disquisitions.

The blend of romance and purpose is rather better than in most novels of the kind. The smooth course of Miss Holt's love for Mr. Marsh is naturally broken when she believes that he is engaged in demolishing her father's fortune and character; as naturally resumed when she knows that he isn't and never has been. All the minor characters are carefully drawn and useful in the movement except one Mr. Blakely, a bird of ill omen who hovers about restlessly, leaving a blight wherever he happens to linger. Novels that discuss public questions elaborately are inevitably dull unless the ideas are unusual or the manner light and brilliant. In spite of the common sense and grasp of political complications displayed in 'Men Born Equal,' we fear that most people will find it very hard to read.

Mr. Meredith's volume of tales reprinted from old magazines includes one old-time tragic story and two modern comedies. Though sufficiently marred by the author's idiosyncrasies and affectations, they are still good,

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and move both to tears and to laughter. It is worthy of note that there is hardly a sentence in the book the meaning of which may not be grasped on sight; which goes to show that the author is not absolutely dependent on tangled phrases for a fair expression of his genius. The title story tells what a milkmaid duchess did at the Wells under the distinguished patronage of Beau Beamish. Without any set description, Mr. Meredith portrays vividly the manners of the period and place, and, by a masterly exercise of the art of insinuation, places us thoroughly *en rapport* with Chloe, gives us the measure of her keen intelligence, and shows us her capacity for love and for despair.

The situation in the second story is farcical, and in farce Mr. Meredith is not exactly agile. To Americans, the retired draper, Mr. Tinman, may appear an impossible character, but the satire lavished upon him makes clear the reason why the author is not beloved by the Philistines of his native land. The quarrels between the devotedly British Tinman and the home returned Australian are very funny, and Mrs. Crickledon is one of those delightful dames who, like the rustics of George Eliot and Thomas Hardy, make one long to spend a lifetime in their company. The third story is pure comedy, brilliantly sustained, with the old-fashioned happy ending. The limit prescribed for a short story seems to us to make a capital restraint for Mr. Meredith. Though some may miss his profound philosophy, many get a chance to perceive and appreciate his dramatic power and his bold, striking impressionism.

Miss Dougall, who has hitherto been known as a writer of purpose novels, now ventures a romantic love-story. The central situation of 'The Mermaid' is very well imagined, but, being highly fantastic, demands for its support more fancy and a lighter touch than Miss Dougall has easily at her command. By converting the merry mermaid into a devoutly religious woman, heroically nursing plague-stricken inhabitants of the Magdalen Islands, she destroys the mood which she has been at pains to excite, and cheats us into assisting at a melancholy spectacle. From a mixture of motives, one gay, one grave, any sort of good effect is missed, and the transparency of devices for prolonging the mystery shows a marked decline in the ingenuity which contrived the plot of 'Beggars All.'

About five years ago Theodor Hertzka published a Utopian romance entitled 'Freiland,' in which he depicted an ideal community that he subsequently attempted to realize in a colony founded by him in Africa. Whether the colony still exists is not known to us; but, however that may be, Hertzka is again in the field as a contributor to the class of literature that received so great an impetus from the success achieved by Edward Bellamy. His new book is a great deal shorter than his former one, and he calls it 'Entrückt in die Zukunft'—a title which might easily tempt shallow-witted scoffers to the emendation "Verrückt in der Gegenwart." The story employs machinery similar to that used in 'Looking Backward.' The hero, a young French physician, falls asleep in his room in Paris, and, on awakening, finds himself in a new world existing two hundred years later. Everything is different from what it used to be. Poverty has been abolished, as has been also private ownership of land and of the instruments of production. The whole earth is the home and property of the human race united in a single family. Repulsive, unwholesome, and degrading work is done by the forces of nature. There are degrees of wealth, but the differences between the poorest and the richest are not great. Every human being is assured not only the necessaries of life, but all its comforts and many of its luxuries. Children are not dependent on their parents nor wives on their husbands. Men have learned to fly, and for long journeys employ air-ships which are propelled by making use of the magnetism of the earth, and travel at the rate of 300 miles an hour. Expeditions have been sent to the Moon, but have unfortunately not yet returned, although it has been ascertained that the travellers composing them are alive and well, in spite of their inability to leave their lunar abode. The story ends abruptly, without offering a clue to the mysteries it suggests or to the purposes which the author had in mind when he wrote it.

Memorials of St. James's Palace. By Edgar Sheppard, Hon. Chaplain to the Queen. Longmans, Green & Co. 1894.

THE visitor to London who sees for the first time the low, unattractive mass of red brick buildings at the foot of St. James's Street, will perhaps find it difficult to believe that these insignificant buildings constitute a royal palace of very considerable antiquarian interest. Historians are accustomed to speak of the Court of St. James's or the Cabinet of St. James's, but our minds do not always connect these phrases with the shabby red brick buildings aforesaid. Mr. Sheppard's chronicles of the palace tell how unceremoniously a visitor once entered the cabinet in the reign of George II. It appears that he lost his footing and fell down a flight of stairs, and, bursting open a door at the foot of the stairs, was precipitated into a room, and lay stunned on the floor. When he came to his senses he found a severe little old gentleman with a red face washing his head and applying sticking-plaster to his wounds. This was the King, and the room he had so abruptly entered was the King's closet—the veritable "cabinet of St. James's."

It was in 1532 that Henry VIII. purchased the site of an old leper hospital which had existed from time immemorial, and, having pulled down the old buildings, erected a "magnificent and goodly house," the greater part of which is still in evidence, though the east wing was destroyed by fire in 1809. The Stuarts and the earlier Hanoverian monarchs lived a good deal at St. James's, but during the last century it has been mainly used for drawing-rooms and other state ceremonies. It was here that Queen Anne in 1710 received "four Indian Sachems or commanders of the nations in the North parts of America"; and on June 1, 1785—a memorable date—the first envoy from the United States of America made his appearance in the reception-room. In this very reception-room, and the other rooms connected with it, were formerly hung the priceless Raphaels, Correggios, Titians, etc., collected by Charles I., which were afterwards sold at ridiculously low prices by order of the Council of State during the Commonwealth, and found their way to the Louvre and other Continental galleries.

The unhappy prince known in history as the Old Pretender was born at St. James's on June 10, 1688, and the curious circumstances attending his birth led many people, including Bishop Burnet, to believe that the veritable prince died, and that another infant, introduced in a warming-pan, was substituted. George IV. was also born at St. James's in 1762, and among the earliest presents sent to the young prince were a curious Indian bow and arrow from his father's faithful subjects in New York. Among the deaths we find that of Queen Mary in 1558, and that of Prince Henry, eldest son of James I., in 1612. He seems to have been a very promising boy, of scholarly tastes, and, moreover, "passionately devoted to tennis, golf, and other athletic exercises." If the prescription sent to him by Sir Walter Raleigh, who was at the time a prisoner in the Tower, had produced the desired effect, the Puritan immigration to New England might never have taken place, and many other things might have been different in consequence. In 1737 Caroline, wife of George II., died at St. James's, after an agonizing illness of twelve days, in the midst of which, as the story goes, on her advising the King to marry again, he sobbed out: "Non, non; j'aurai des maîtresses."

The first royal marriage at St. James's was that of Mary, eldest daughter of Charles I., to Count William of Nassau in 1641, the issue of this marriage being William III. In 1734 the eldest daughter of George II. married another prince of Nassau, who was remarkable for his hideous appearance; but as a compensation the wedding music for this occasion was composed and conducted by Handel. In 1795 George IV., then Prince of Wales, married the unfortunate Princess Caroline; and it is related that she disgusted the sensitive George, and probably laid the foundation of future unhappiness, by an injudicious indulgence in onions shortly before her first meeting with "the first gentleman of Europe." The chapel royal in the palace has seen other sights besides royal marriages and funerals. When the eloquent Dr. South was preaching there one Sunday to the court of Charles II., he noticed that many of his hearers were asleep. He suddenly changed his tone and called Lord Lauderdale, who immediately awoke. Then the Doctor said: "I am sorry to interrupt your repose, but I must beg you not to snore so loud lest you awaken his Majesty." Later on, the chapel became too popular as a fashionable meeting-place, so that in 1700 Bishop Burnet had the pews raised higher to stop "ogling and sighing." Queen Anne did not like the chapel, and preferred to have prayers read in the outer room while she dressed. On one occasion she ordered the door shut, whereupon the chaplain immediately stopped; and when the Queen sent to ask the reason, he very properly replied that "he would not whistle the word of God through the keyhole."

From time to time distinguished foreigners have been entertained at St. James's. In 1638 Marie de Médicis established a miniature court there, to the great annoyance of the whole nation, until finally Parliament voted her £10,000 on condition that she quitted the country at once, which she did in 1641. In 1698 came Peter the Great, but the only interesting thing recorded of him is that his favorite beverage was "hot pepper and brandy." After the peace of 1814 the Emperor of Russia, the King of Prussia, and Marshal Blücher spent some time at the palace, the Marshal becoming a prime favorite with the London public, who waited in crowds for the chance of seeing the white-haired veteran smoking his pipe at the window.

Theatrical performances were frequently given at the palace in the time of the Stuarts, presumably in the great ball-room, as there is no permanent stage in the building. In 1633 "The Taming of the Shrew" was given by the King's company, and in 1637 "Julius Cæsar," while Evelyn refers to a number of perform-

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auces after the Restoration. In 1837, shortly before the accession of Queen Victoria, a ball was given where the minuet was formally danced for the last time at the English court. At different times great deputations of citizens have appeared at the palace to present petitions of one kind or another. In 1765, for instance, the London periwig-makers appeared in force, carrying a complaint of the fashion, recently adopted by gentlemen, of wearing their own hair. They implored his Majesty to restore the old fashion by wearing a wig. Whereupon some humorist of the period got up a sham petition from the carpenters, requesting the King to wear a wooden leg and cause all his courtiers to do the same. Up to the end of the seventeenth century great numbers of people used to come every year to be touched by the reigning monarch for the King's-evil, but the sound common sense of William III. put an end to the practice.

Mr. Sheppard has gathered together a great mass of information about the palace, its internal economy, and the people who have lived in it, and in so doing has enjoyed special facilities for consulting old documents and official records. He has produced an interesting and readable book, rendered particularly attractive by a variety of excellent illustrations.

The Great Dominion: Studies of Canada. By George R. Parkin, M.A., Hon. LL.D. University of New Brunswick. With maps. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

Mr. Parkin's work is, we are told, a compilation from letters contributed by the author to the London *Times*. The volume is interesting and in some measure instructive reading, for Mr. Parkin knows his country well, and has had the fullest access to official sources of information. The latter fact, however, is a seriously qualifying one, for intelligent and even able as the author is, he has, in preparing his work, placed himself in the position of an advocate holding a brief not only for the Dominion Tory Government, but for its anti-continental and Jingo ally, the Canadian Pacific Railway. The partisan attitude of Mr. Parkin towards the latter may be judged from the fact that while he devotes an entire chapter to the road, he contents himself with but two single-line and belittling references to the Grand Trunk Railway, the great pioneer enterprise of the country. The author's point of view in his work may be further inferred when we recall the fact that Mr. Parkin is a notable colonial apostle of Imperial Federation, that dream of British unification and aggrandizement so dear to poetic minds, and note that his present work has apparently been called into existence to refute the strictures of Mr. Goldwin Smith on the political and economical condition of the Dominion, expressed in that brilliant writer's recent work, 'Canada and the Canadian Question.' It is but fair to Mr. Parkin to say that while he assumes the rôle of reviser of Prof. Smith's judgments, he does so with frank and unembarrassed candor, insomuch, indeed, that the reader who is at all conversant with the subjects discussed is at times in doubt as to the author's real opinions, and asks himself whether Mr. Parkin is what he assumes to be, or, on the contrary, is rather inclined to agree with Mr. Smith in not a few of that writer's sane and ofttimes trenchant criticisms. The difficulty we have referred to will be appreciated if we cite Mr. Parkin's views on some of the chief topics discussed, on which Mr. Goldwin Smith has preceded him in giving readers of Canadian affairs a careful and frequently striking judgment.

"'Rich by nature, poor by policy' might be written on Canada's door," is a dictum of Mr. Goldwin Smith's, expressed, as is usual with that writer, with the telling force of an epigram. The phrase is his summing up of the Canadian policy of protection, applied in a thinly populated and over-governed country, which needs above all things for its economical well-being free access to the great markets of its own continent, together with an honest and enlightened government, and the inducements to make the Dominion a rich rather than a poor country to live in. The criticism covers a number of points which Mr. Parkin attempts to meet either by general denial or by a gloss which is contradicted in detail by his own admissions. Let us take one or two brief examples. Of the national policy of protection and the benefits of the United States market to the Canadian producer, Mr. Parkin has this to say: First, as to the fisheries of British Columbia: "Halibut and black cod are found in the greatest abundance off the Island of Vancouver, but the development of a large fishery is hindered by the difficulty of access to adequate markets" (p. 166). Second, in regard to the tariff and the discontent which it creates among the population in the border constituencies: "It may be admitted that along the borders, where the frontier, with its custom-houses carrying out the regulations of a high protective tariff, offered hindrances to local trade, a certain amount of annexation talk was in past years heard" (p. 186). Thirdly, of the grinding effects of a high tariff and the imperious need of improved economic conditions, Mr. Parkin states: "There seems to be a consensus of opinion throughout the Northwest, in the agricultural communities of the East, and among men of independent thought everywhere, that the first object of Canadian statesmanship should now be to make the Dominion a cheap country to live in" (p. 202). And fourthly, respecting the near market: "In what I have said there has been no intention to question the great value to Canada of the freest trade relations attainable with the United States" (p. 197).

That Canada suffers from being over-governed, Mr. Parkin does not dispute. In the Maritime Provinces, especially, with three Governments for a small area, he thinks over-government fatuous. "A regular system of government by ministries based on party lines tends," he observes, "to become absurd when applied to such small constituencies, and ends by personal considerations and mere wire-pulling taking the place of anything that can be dignified by the name of policy" (p. 237). This expression of opinion seems to indicate that Mr. Parkin, like Mr. Goldwin Smith, is not enamored of party government, and this is more clearly emphasized in speaking also of the Provinces by the sea, where, as Mr. Parkin affirms, "much talent, effort, and time are spent in trying to squeeze public and private prosperity out of politics," and where "the hope is constantly indulged of help from some god's hand thrust out from the political machine," instead of energetically meeting commercial depression and the atrophy which has overtaken the country as the result of its isolation and handicapping trade policy. On the vexed subject of the exodus to the United States, Mr. Parkin is also at one with Mr. Goldwin Smith, though he takes the matter less seriously and treats it as the outcome of mere natural conditions. He also agrees with Mr. Smith in respect of the non-paying character of the Intercolonial Railroad, but explains this on the ground "that rates over the road have been designedly kept low so as to encourage interprovincial trade," which, however, it does little to foster.

The condition of things in the French Province opens Mr. Parkin's eyes to the same evils which Mr. Goldwin Smith notes. The chief of these are the fossilizing character of race isolation, the retarding effects of primitive modes of agriculture, the decadence of Quebec now that the English have left it, the reckless and corrupt system of provincial administration, and the migration of masses of the people to the factories of New England. The sinister influence of French-Canadian parties in Dominion affairs, and the separatist aspirations of the French race in an English colony, Mr. Parkin appears to treat lightly, though he counsels moderation and liberality in both elements of the population, and adds complacently that the English Provinces can afford to be calm under all conditions. "Their real political danger," he affirms, "lies not in Quebec and the Frenchman, but in the recklessness of party conflict, which has more than once tempted their politicians to sacrifice principle in order to win the French vote. The French vote, on the other hand," he adds, "has seemed at times to be won rather by the particular concession it had in view than by a reasoned and honest policy." Here, as in many other instances, Mr. Parkin, so far from disagreeing with Mr. Goldwin Smith, apparently agrees with him, and takes up his parable against the things which Mr. Smith censures and has been deemed disloyal for censuring.

Despite what we have said, and the fact that Mr. Parkin travels over much of the ground which Mr. Goldwin Smith has already so well covered, there is much that is readable and instructive in his volume. Whatever its inconsistencies, the author, from his point of view, is no doubt justified in preparing and setting his work before the constituency of readers who will presumably welcome it. Nor will the candor with which it is written lessen its acceptance by those who are not likely to relish its ultra-British tone and the Imperialist purpose which has admittedly inspired it. That candor, as we have said, will puzzle not a few readers who, with us, discern the ostensible purpose which has called the book into existence, however well or ill it may happen to serve the end in view.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, Grant. At Market Value. F. T. Neely. 50 cents.
Annual American Catalogue, 1894. *Publishers' Weekly.*
Antæus, and Other Short Stories from *Outing.* *Outing* Publishing Co.
Atherton, Gertrude F. Los Cerritos. Lovell, Coryell & Co. 50 cents.
Austin, Alfred. Madonna's Child. Macmillan. $1.
Baldwin, James. Choice English Lyrics. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Bardeen, C. W. A Brief Descriptive Geography of the Empire State. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. 75 cents.
Bell, Lilian. A Little Sister to the Wilderness. Chicago: Stone & Kimball. $1.25.
Ben Jonson. Vol. III. [Mermaid Series.] London: Unwin; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Björnson, B. Arne. Macmillan. $1.25.
Blunden, G. H. Local Taxation and Finance. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.
Boothby, Guy. A Lost Endeavor. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Borgeaud, Charles. Adoption and Amendment of Constitutions in Europe and America. Macmillan. $2.
Bosanquet, Bernard. Aspects of the Social Problem. Macmillan. $1.
Bradford, Gamaliel, jr. Macaulay's Life of Samuel Johnson. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 25 cents.
Buchanan, Robert. *Rachel Dene.* F. T. Neely. 50 cents.
Carman, Bliss. A Seamark: A Threnody for Robert Louis Stevenson. Boston: Copeland & Day. 25 cents.
Cash vs. Coin. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. 25 cents.
Cavaignac, Godefroy. Pour l'Impôt Progressif. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Clark, W. L. Hand-book of Criminal Procedure. St. Paul: West Publishing Co. $3.75.
Coleridge, E. H. Letters of Samuel T. Coleridge. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $6.
Cooke, Matilda V. The Zig-zag Paths of Life. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. $1.

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Coleman, Rev. Leighton. The Church in America. James Pott & Co. $2.50.
Cotes, Mrs. Everard. The Story of Sonny Sahib. Appletons.
Chatfield-Taylor. Two Women and a Fool. Chicago: Stone & Kimball. $1.50.
Comstock, Prof. J. H., and Mrs. Anna B. A Manual for the Study of Insects. Ithaca, N. Y.: Comstock Publishing Co. $3.75.
Conrad, Joseph. Almayer's Folly: A Story of an Eastern River. Macmillan. $1.25.
Crane, Stephen. The Black Riders, and Other Lines. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.
Custer, Mrs. Elizabeth B. Tenting on the Plains. Harpers. $1.50.
Davis, M. E. M. *Under the Man-Fig.* Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Defoe, Daniel. The Life and Adventures of Mr. Duncan Campbell. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.00.
Dickens, Charles. Bleak House. Macmillan. $1.
Doyle, A. C. The Mystery of Cloomber. R. F Fenno & Co. 50 cents.
Duval, Georges. The Romance of the Sword: A Napoleonic Novel. Merriam Co. $1.50.
Early Venetian Printing. Illustrated. London: J. C. Nimmo; New York: Scribners. $7.50.
Echegaray, José. Mariana. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Endlich, G. A. The Law of Building Associations. 2d ed. Jersey City: F. D. Linn & Co.
Flagler, L. V. The New Era of Song. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent. 35 cents
Francatelli, C. E. Modern Cook: English, French, Italian, German Cookery. Philadelphia: David McKay. $2.
Fretwell, John. Newfoundland and the Jingoes. Boston: G. H. Ellis.
Garnier, R. M. Annals of the British Peasantry. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
George, A. J. Burke's Speech on Conciliation with America. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30 cents.
George, A. J. Webster's Bunker Hill Oration. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 25 cents.
Glascock, W. H. Stories of Columbia. Appletons.
Gorham, F. P., and Tower, R. W. A Laboratory Guide for the Dissection of the Cat. Scribners. $1.
Halévy, Ludovic. The Abbé Constantin. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Hartt, Irene W. How to Make Money although a Woman. J. S. Ogilvie. 25 cents.
Hill, Beveridge. "The Story of a Cañon." Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Leavitt, J. B. The Law of Negligence in New York. Diossy Law Book Co.
Mason, O. T. The Origins of Invention: A Study of Industry among Primitive Peoples. London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. $1 25.
Moses, Prof. A. J., and Parsons, Prof. C. L. Elements of Mineralogy, Crystallography and Blowpipe Analysis. D. Van Nostrand Co.
Muhleman, M. L. Monetary Systems of the World. C. H. Nicoll. $2.
North American Birds. With colored plates. Parts IX., X., and XI. Milwaukee, Wis.: George Brunder.
Ohnet, Georges. Le Chant du Cygne. Maynard, Merrill & Co
Petrie, Prof. W. M. F. A History of Egypt from the Earliest Times to the XVIth Dynasty. Vol. I. Scribners. $2.25.

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